The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, MARCH 8, 1888.

The Week.

THE correspondence between Secretary Bayard and Sir Charles Tupper on this side of the water, and between Minister Phelps and Lord Salisbury on the other, anterior to the recent fishery negotiation, establishes beyond question the necessity of the Commission which has lately concluded its work. It shows that any other mode of reaching a peaceful solution of the difficulty was impossible, owing to the great distance between the two seats of government and the length of time that must elapse in exchanging notes respecting each grievance arising under the enforcement of Canadian fishing regulations. It proves that Mr. Bayard has been moved by the most sedulous care for the interests of his own country and of American fishermen. Whatever opinion may be held concerning the outcome of the negotiations, the good faith of the parties cannot be impeached. The moral effect of the negotiation has been most wholesome. Whether the treaty is ratified on our part or not, the *rapprochement* accomplished by it has been salutary. It has softened asperities everywhere except among the fishermen themselves, who, of course, "claim everything." It is significant of this softened feeling that the desire for reciprocity between the two countries is gaining ground. The most pointed evidence of this fact is the introduction of a joint resolution by Mr. Hitt of Illinois to promote commercial union with Canada. Mr. Hitt is the foremost Republican member of the House Committee on Foreign Affairs. The movement initiated by Mr. Butterworth of Ohio a year ago, and substantially endorsed by Senator Sherman in his recent speech in Boston, has secured so strong a reinforcement in Mr. Hitt that we may almost say that it is now an unproclaimed part of the Republican creed.

Mr. Joseph Chamberlain's speech on Friday evening left a very strong impression of the bona fides of all parties to the fishery negotiations. Good faith and an earnest desire on all sides o remove causes of dissatisfaction must commend the treaty to public approval in the end, whatever hasty adverse judgment may be formed at the outset. Mayor Hewitt gave a very brief and terse expression to this common-sense view of the matter after Mr. Chamberlain had concluded. His remarks were in notable contrast to the string of half-truths that the Chamber of Commerce was induced to give its sanction to a few days ago. The idea that we are giving an equivalent to Canada by offering her something that neither party wants, in exchange for something that she wants to keep and we want to get, is perfectly absurd. We do not believe that the resolution passed by the Chamber of Commerce expresses the mature opinion of that body, still less that of the commercial community of New York. Look for a moment at the situation of Newfoundland. The very existence of her people depends upon the fishing advantages which nature has given her. Take those away without an equivalent, and the inhabitants must starve or abandon their homes. "He takes my life who takes the means whereby I live." Newfoundland buys all her supplies from us. She has nothing but fish and fish-oil to give in return. She has bait and sailors and a base of operations for her dower and her livelihood, and she has nothing else. She asks in exchange for these the equal privilege of selling her catch in our market. These things were reserved to her in the Treaty of 1818, which we have elected to stand on in preference to that of 1870. Yet some of our merchant princes would take the bread out of the mouths of these humble people inhabiting the margin of storm-swept rock, on the ground that we have given them a fair equivalent when we have offered them bait and sailors and a base of fishing operations where there are no fish. Mr. Chamberlain has done something to dispel the prejudices born of ignorance and inattention which stand in the way of a ratification of the treaty. But the prejudices which grow out of a selfish desire to monopolize the American market will, of course, yield to nothing but superior force. The duty on pickled fish being at the bottom of all our fishery disputes, its eventual fate is involved in the larger tariff controversy that is now dawning upon us. What all good citizens should hope for is that no accident may happen in the meantime contrary to the peace of nations.

The Internal-Revenue Reduction Bill reported by the Committee of Ways and Means repeals the taxes on tobacco (not cigars and cigarettes), and reduces the various license taxes, the details of which are not yet published. The estimated reduction of the revenue from this source is $24,500,000, of which $16,000,000 comes from the excise duty on manufactured tobacco. It is stated that the licenses of retail liquor-dealers are to be repealed in favor of the States. These amounted last year to $4,587,268. In order to bring the total reduction up to $24,500,000, it will be necessary to repeal all the license taxes, including those on dealers in tobacco, cigars, and malt liquors, leaving in force only the excise duties on distilled spirits, cigars, cigarettes, snuff, beer, oleomargarine, and bank-notes. The internal revenue will thus be cut down to $94,300,000, the present taxes and licenses yielding $118,800,000.

The *Financial Chronicle* notes symptoms of tightness in the money market, growing out of the large collections of revenue and the locking up of money in the Treasury. Since the 1st of February, it says, there has been an addition to the net currency holdings in the Treasury vaults of $13,500,000, notwithstanding the Secretary has added to the deposits in national banks $2,500,000, and has sought to make the deposits larger, but has been unable to do so, the banks to which the deposits were offered declining to take them. The *Chronicle* considers this state of things dangerous, and urges speedy action by Congress "for immediate and liberal reductions of the revenue." It considers the bill reported by the Senate Committee on Finance "directing" the Secretary of the Treasury to invest in Government bonds 80 per cent. of the bank-note redemption fund, now amounting to upwards of $98,000,000, an extremely unwise measure, since it leaves no discretion to the Secretary, and virtually enables the bondholders to exact whatever premium they please. "It is a positive direction to invest $80,000,000 in bonds regardless of price at a time when the Government is expected to invest probably $150,000,000 of additional surplus in the same way." This is certainly very reckless legislation. We do not believe that such a bill can pass the Senate, however much the Republican party may desire to put the Secretary "in a hole."

The House has passed a bill authorizing the Secretary to invest the surplus in the purchase of bonds in his own discretion. This is a repetition of an existing law, and is passed to overcome the scruples of the Secretary, who has stated officially that he desires contemporaneous authority for so grave a responsibility. The rumor comes from Washington that the Senate will not act upon the House bill at all, taking the ground that it is mere surplusage to reënact an existing law concerning the surplus. If the Senate should adhere to this position, the Secretary would be obliged to recede from his, so far as to assume that the failure of Congress to rescind the existing authorization, after their attention had been called to it, was equivalent to a reënactment of it. A law is a law until it is repealed, and it is immaterial whether it was enacted by the Fiftieth Congress, or the Fortieth, or the First. There is probably some party spite in the refusal to consider the Secretary's scruples, but the Senate's position, if it shall take such a position, will be a defensible one. So much cannot be said of the bill reported by the Finance Committee, which leaves the Secretary no discretion as to the investment of $80,000,000, but invites the bondholders to corner the market against him.

Mr. Randall's remarks on the bill to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to purchase bonds with the surplus revenues caused no little sensation on both sides of the House. His discourse on this bill led him to make some remarks on the coming tariff bill. He said that it had been given out that there was a conspiracy against the protective system of the United States. He did not believe that there was any such conspiracy. "I beg to say," he continued, "to those who have an affrighted fancy, that, so far as American industries are concerned, they are not to-day in any danger." In conclusion, he expressed the belief that the Democratic party would remain united. This means that Mr. Ran-

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dall has decided not to oppose the Ways and Means Committee's bill, and thus land himself and his flock in the Republican party. This is wise. The Republicans have no use for Mr. Randall, except as a Democrat. If he were one of them, they would give his seat in Congress to some "old-timer" of their own. The significance of Mr. Randall's remarks is all the greater for this reason. It implies that Pennsylvania will make shift to get on even without a duty on wool, and with something less than $17 per ton on steel rails.

The remarkable feature of the pension debate which has been running in the Senate for the past week is the readiness shown by the Republican Senators to do the bidding of the Grand Army of the Republic, whatever that bidding might be. Mr. Manderson of Nebraska, in explaining the bill of which he had the management, said that he "had been charged by the Grand Army of the Republic with the duty of helping to pass this bill as it came from the hands of its Pension Committee." Mr. Davis of Minnesota, a Chairman of the Pension Committee, defended that Committee from the charge that it had brought in a carelessly drawn bill, by saying that "the members of the Grand Army of the Republic formulated the bill introduced by the Senator from Nebraska," and that "your Committee, when many of these features which have been called to the attention of the Senate were called to their attention, felt exceedingly loath to disturb the phraseology or the principles upon which it is based." Mr. Plumb of Kansas raised the question whether the bill really represented the wishes of the Grand Army, and Mr. Manderson replied that "this bill in exact language was formulated by the Pension Committee of the Grand Army of the Republic." The whole course of the discussion showed that the Republican members of the Senate were ready to pass any pension bill upon the assurance that the Grand Army wanted it, and that they considered the assurance that the Grand Army wanted it the only reason necessary to be given.

Senator Vest of Missouri told the exact truth when he said, of the pension debate, that the Senate had been engaged for some days past in a political auction for the "soldier vote," and he was abundantly justified in the satire which he employed in describing the various bids of the Republican candidates for the Presidential nomination. It is another illustration of the great advantage which the Democratic party reaps from having such a President as Mr. Cleveland, that his pension record enables Democratic Senators to feel a confidence of popular support in opposing the pension-grabbers which they never before experienced. Timid Democrats in Congress a year ago were afraid that his veto of the Dependent Pension Bill was going to harm the Democratic party, but they have learned that Republican papers were right when they declared that "the country will applaud and sustain him in it" (Albany *Express*); that "the veto will be generally approved by public sentiment throughout the country" (Troy *Times*); that "the people of the United States owe recognition to the courage of President Cleveland for his action" (Poughkeepsie *Eagle*); that "undoubtedly the country is with him" (Buffalo *Express*); that "the veto will prove a great public service" (Philadelphia *Press*); and that "he has justified himself at every point" (Chicago *Tribune*). The amazing thing is, that Republican Senators should fly in the face of public opinion as thus expressed by Republican papers.

It is very plain that all the friends of free wool are not in the Democratic party. Mr. McCreary of Kentucky having introduced a bill (H. R. 1473) for a pan-American conference, in order to promote arbitration for the settlement of disputes and "to encourage such reciprocal commercial relations as will be beneficial to all, and secure more extensive markets for the products of each of said countries," Mr. William Walter Phelps made a "rousing speech" in favor of it in the House last Thursday, and claimed the glory of this conception for Mr. Blaine, and taunted the Democrats with sluggishness and general ineptitude in that it had taken seven years for them to understand and appreciate the advantages of pan-Americanism in commercial intercourse. All that Mr. Phelps said was very fine, but what, we beg to inquire, becomes of the tariff on wool when the pan-American reciprocity treaty comes into force? Reciprocal commercial relations require the mutual repeal of duties. What are the dutiable articles that South America desires to sell to us? First of all, wool; second, copper and copper ore. Coffee, hides, and India rubber are already on the free list. When the pan-American conference that Mr. Phelps is so anxious for assembles, the first thing to be put into the reciprocity treaty will be wool and copper. Unless these are admitted free from the Argentine Republic, Chili, etc., the conference may as well not be held at all. It would be a lame and impotent conclusion to hold the conference merely to promote arbitration for the settlement of disputes. All that could be arranged without a conference. Indeed, we have so few disputes with South American countries, and they are so much accustomed to acknowledge our primacy in the affairs of the Western Hemisphere, that, however much a general system of arbitration might be to their advantage, it would not be to our advantage, because we have things pretty much our own way now.

Mr. Edward Atkinson has brought out in the last number of *Bradstreet's* his reply to Sir Morton Frewen, Mr. Bear, and other English critics who had called in question his statement made before the British Association for the Advancement of Science, that the American farmer could make as much profit to-day on wheat at 34s. per quarter in Liverpool as he could make at 50s. per quarter in 1873. The statement of Mr. Atkinson was made from his general knowledge of the cheapening of transportation and production since 1873. Mr. Bear and others denied Mr. Atkinson's statements very roundly and very sharply. He now publishes his justification in an article of three pages, not only sustaining his former statement, but affirming that American wheat growers can do as well with wheat at 28s. as they could in 1873 at 50s. In other words, he has lowered his margin as much as 6s. per quarter. The reductions in cost since 1873, which are shown separately and in detail by Mr. Atkinson, are as follows, in terms of English money:

Reduction in the railway charges...	11s. or more
Reduction in the steamer charges ..	5s.
Reduction in planting and reaping .	2s. or more
Reduction in milling and sacking...	3s. or more
Reduction in elevating, handling, etc	1s.
Minimum reduction per quarter..	22s.

Take 22s. reduction in cost from 50s., the Liverpool price in 1873, and we have 28s. as the equivalent which puts the American farmer on the same footing that he held in 1873. Mr. Atkinson gives his authorities for his several calculations, and we think that he has made out his case. The fact that wheat continues to go to Liverpool in large quantities at about 30s. per quarter, would seem to confirm Mr. Atkinson's original thesis, and to establish presumptively his later one.

Senator Sherman has bestirred himself and induced the Senate to pass a resolution requesting the President to negotiate a treaty with the Emperor of China providing that no Chinese laborer shall enter the United States. Mr. Sherman's motive is transparent —too transparent to effect its purpose. He has found that his votes against the Anti-Chinese Bills years ago have made him unavailable as a Republican candidate for President on the Pacific Coast, and he is trying to "make himself solid" on the other side of the continent by extraordinary zeal against the Chinese now. But it will not avail. The people will remember that he voted against the Anti-Chinese Bills when the issue was a vital one, and no death-bed repentance will atone for that offence.

In the long list of political Americanisms, we meet with no fitting name for christening the pet stratagem of our Florence statesman. His master-stroke is rejecting in good set terms a proffered and coveted honor, while all the while hoping that no number of refusals will prove a rebuff. The keen eye of the ancient comedians detected this weakness in Athenian demagogues who declined office with a view to making their election surer, and Philippides gave it the name *accismus*. Accismus is not to be found in Webster. Though never as yet discovered in any English book made to be read, it has been printed by Chambers, Smart, Worcester, and the New Dictionary, as if with prophetic instinct that it would be needed. Dr. Murray defines it "a feigned refusal of that which is earnestly desired." This form of words comes pat for describing Blaine's declinatures, and preëminently the last. We must always eke out our vocabulary with Greek. How could we do without telegraph, telegram, telephone, phonogram, telepathy, etc.? Let us thank the Greeks for teaching us accismus, which

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our idiom may perhaps shorten to accism, as it contracts *schisma* to schism. Accismus is better than "still hunt," which befits a process rather than an action. It is better than *nolo episcopari*, which is worn out, and has an ecclesiastical squint, as growing out of the canon-law maxim, "Indignus est sacerdotio nisi fuerit ordinatus invitus." It is better than Cæsarism, which is consecrated to indicate cravings not for a first, but for a third Presidential term. In fine, a word in its newest gloss is demanded to brand the newest mock-modesty in our political aspirants.

The "Pauper Immigrant" Law was put to a curious test a short time ago when our Consul at Liverpool sent to New York a seaman who shipped on an American vessel at San Francisco, and who was left sick and crippled at his consulate. As a foreigner without means of support, he was not permitted by the Board of Emigration to land, and, with the concurrence of the Treasury Department, he was returned to Liverpool at the vessel's expense. Now, under an old and well-known law, our consuls are required to furnish relief to all American seamen found destitute within their districts. This relief includes board, clothing, medical aid, and transportation *to the United States*. The subjects of this relief must be American seamen, but the regulations of the Department of State have for many years included in this class all persons, of whatever nationality, who ship with an American vessel from one of our home ports. As a matter of fact, the majority of American seamen to-day entitled to the privileges mentioned are not American citizens. When left upon a consulate, they are not only entitled to be sent to the United States at the expense of the Government, but no master of one of our vessels can refuse to take them on board when the Consul requests it. The troublesome individual in this case was a foreigner, but he was, under the relief laws mentioned, an American seaman, and it was not possible for the Consul at Liverpool to refuse him transportation, or for the captain of the vessel to deny him passage, without incurring the penalties of the law. We understand that upon his return to Liverpool the Consul made a report to the Department of State, which led to a conference between it and the Treasury Department, resulting in an agreement that hereafter such seamen, known as "consuls' men," should be permitted to land unmolested.

The homicidal mania seems to be breaking out again at the South with renewed virulence. In Culpepper (Va.) two young editors, Mr. Barbour of the Piedmont *Advance* and Mr. Williams of the Culpepper *Exponent*, had a deadly encounter. As usual, "the families of both are very prominent in the county." The trouble arose over a satirical letter about Williams's uncle in the *Advance*, signed "Jack Clatterbuck." Barbour resented it bitterly in the *Advance*, and after several exchanges of vituperation came the usual closing observation, that Williams was "a little dog barking at a gentleman's heels." Thereupon Williams "armed himself" and went to see Barbour, and then Barbour's first shot went through Williams's heart, and Barbour also fell to the floor dangerously wounded. "The excitement over the tragedy" in the county is, we need hardly say, "intense." About the same time a "terrible battle occurred among citizens of the Fifth District of Monroe County," Miss., at a meeting of school trustees to consider the action of a teacher who had expelled some pupils. The affair had been arranged, and the meeting was breaking up when the "difficulty" suddenly broke out. James Bailey, jr., killed R. A. Rutledge and his son Edward and Benjamin Fish, and shot off accidentally one of his own brother's fingers, and then made his escape through a window, receiving a shot in the ribs and a stab in the back as he fled. There were others as active and energetic as Bailey, but no record has been kept of their deeds. The school-house is riddled with bullet-holes. How the teacher fared does not appear, but he probably escaped. The affair, we need hardly say, "has created a great sensation in that portion of the country, and may not be over yet." In fact, we fear "the battle" was only adjourned. The friends of the dead Rutledges have to kill some one in order to close up the account. The bullet holes in the school-house will remind the children of what the Fifth District of Monroe County expects of them when they get their pistols and enter on manhood.

That a clever novelist may not be a wise judge of public affairs surely should need no demonstration, and yet it is difficult to see what else than this is shown by the long article on "The Negro Question" which the *Tribune* on Sunday published from the pen of Mr. George W. Cable. The substance of it all is that Mr. Cable is greatly discouraged over the present situation, and that he does not have faith that time will work an improvement, while he has, after all, no definite remedy to suggest. Really, it is hardly worth while for a man, even though he be a good story writer, to fill seven long columns of fine type in a newspaper to reach so lame and impotent a conclusion as this. Mr. Cable shows an ignorance alike of past developments in the North and of present tendencies at the South, which unfits a writer for intelligent and candid treatment of the subject. He talks as though, on the one hand, the negro everywhere in the North received as fair treatment as the white man, and as though, on the other hand, no progress in the right direction were anywhere making in the South. Both of these theories are fallacious. In Brooklyn, "the City of Churches," the negro who goes to the theatre, even as a Grand Army man at a Grand Army entertainment, is relegated to the gallery, whatever his wealth or standing, and in Ohio and Kansas negro parents, within a few months, have had to fight through all the courts the most bitter opposition to the admission of their children to schools attended by white children. Of the progressive tendency at the South it is sufficient to cite two illustrations. Mr. Cable complains that "an expensive isolation of race from race is kept up even in the teachers' institutes," whereas this isolation was broken down in Kentucky some years ago and is beginning to yield in North Carolina. At the recent public reception to the President in a hotel at Jacksonville, Fla., negroes were admitted on a perfect equality with whites. Mr. Cable is unduly depressed.

The truth is, that there is no possible offhand solution of the negro problem at the South. It was never solved, so far as it has been solved, in any such fashion at the North. The negro did not secure his rights in the North summarily. In 1865 Connecticut gave 6,000 majority against an amendment to the Constitution giving him the right to vote, and Minnesota 2,500 majority against a similar amendment. In 1867 Kansas refused by 9,000 majority to strike out the word "white," and Ohio gave 38,000 majority the same way. It was more than twenty years after the close of the war before Ohio, which meanwhile had been boiling with indignation over the maltreatment of the negro at the South, reached the point of abolishing the last of the "black laws"; and even then communities which prided themselves upon being educational centres fought bitterly against mixed schools, carrying the controversy up to the Supreme Court, which has just decided that they must yield. When Mr. Cable has lived longer at the North, and learned more of its history, he will find it necessary to reconstruct the theories which he has ignorantly framed as to the race line in this part of the country. Meanwhile, it is to be hoped that he will not be more impatient with his old neighbors in the South than Northern people, who have noted the slowness with which race prejudice has declined under the most favorable circumstances here, and who have a great deal of charity for their brethren in a region where even slower progress is reasonably to be expected.

The strike in the Lehigh collieries, which had been dragging along for six months, collapsed utterly on Friday, when all the strikers made a rush for reëmployment on the old terms. All were taken back except the leaders, who have not only been refused employment by the companies, but find themselves so bitterly condemned and distrusted by the strikers that they are likely to have to leave that part of the country. The men declare not only that they were duped by their leaders, but that the latter have made a great deal of money out of the strike. Of course they have—that is what most strikes are for. It is most encouraging to find the duped workingmen coming to a realization of this truth. A curious fact about this strike is that it lasted precisely as long as the strike in the anthracite region in 1877, which seems to show that six months is the maximum period during which miners are able to subsist without work.

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THE TARIFF BILL.

THE bill reported by the majority of the Ways and Means Committee is so moderate in its reduction of duties, and so little calculated to disturb or unsettle any established industry, that the Republicans in Congress will have to strain themselves heavily to make any kind of fight against it. It does not go beyond the average reduction recommended by the Tariff Commission of 1883, although differing in details from the bill then recommended. It is in harmony with the recommendations of Senator Sherman and Representative Dawes in 1872, made at a time when there was no necessity pressing upon the Government to reduce a surplus revenue, as there is now. In his speech supporting tariff reduction in that year Mr. Sherman said:

"It must be remembered that the present duties, taken together, are far in excess of what they were before the war, and that they have been three times largely increased since the passage of the Morrill Tariff Act of 1861. . . . The result of such duties is to secure to mechanical industries higher wages than can be earned in other kindred employments. Such excessive protection not only ceases to diversify production, but forces labor into protected employments. If the present rates of duty were high enough during and since the war, when home industry was burdened with heavy internal taxes—with stamp duties, income taxes, and high rates on raw materials—then, surely, they are now too high when all these taxes are removed. . . . I have listened with patience day by day to the statements of gentlemen who are interested in our domestic productions. I am a firm believer in the general idea of protecting their industries, but I assure them, as I assure their representatives here, that if the present high rates of duties, unexampled in our country, and higher by nearly 50 per cent. than they were in 1861, are maintained on metallic and textile fabrics after we have repealed the very internal taxes which gave rise to them, and after we have substantially given them their raw materials free of duties, we shall have a feeling of dissatisfaction among other interests in the country that will overthrow the whole system, and do greater harm than can possibly be done by a moderate reduction of the present rates of duty. And I am quite sure that intelligent men engaged in the production of various forms of textile and metallic fabrics feel, as I do, that it is wiser and better to do what is just and right, to make a reduction in their products, at least to the extent of the reduction in this bill on their raw materials, rather than to invite a controversy in which I believe they will be in the wrong."

That all that Mr. Sherman then said is applicable to the present tariff, and more, is evident from the fact that the average rate of tax on dutiable goods is nearly 4 per cent. higher now than it was then. It should be remarked also that, although protective tariffs have been maintained in this country continuously for ninety-nine years—that is, during the whole period of our national existence under the Constitution—they are now higher than they ever were before in our history, being upwards of 47 per cent. average on dutiable goods, the highest previous tariff (that of 1828) having averaged only 43 per cent.

The circumstances being such, and the necessity of bringing the revenue down to the measure of the public expenditures being immediate and pressing, we are not surprised to find that the Republican attack upon the bill is made rather upon the mode of its preparation than upon the merits of the measure. It is called a "dark-lantern bill," because the majority of the Committee did not admit the minority into their confidence while it was in course of preparation. The answer to this is, that the minority have it now, and can try their teeth on it to any extent. They can offer as many amendments now as they could have done at any time. The darkness has been dispelled and the light of day has burst upon the scene. The disclosure is by no means dreadful. American industry is not flat on its back. The earth will still yield her increase, even though wool goes on the free list, and certainly manufacturing industry will not be harmed by that proceeding, or by the corresponding reduction on woollen goods. The truth is, that we have been importing the wool in the form of cloth that we ought to have imported as wool and manufactured ourselves. The wool tariff is the very key and pivot of the tariff situation, and the repeal of the duty on that article is the chief merit of the present bill, regarded as a measure of industrial reform.

The greatest merit of the bill is that it reduces the revenue $50,000,000. The calculation of the Committee is that the reduction on sugar will be $11,000,000, on raw materials $22,250,000, on woollen manufactures $12,000,000, and on miscellaneous articles $5,000,000. In order to secure the requisite reduction, say $70,000,000, and to provide against possible increase of importations of some articles on which the duties are reduced, but not repealed, it will be necessary to cut down the internal revenue by $25,000,000 to $30,000,000. Of the measure by which the Committee propose to effect this reduction, we have spoken on another page.

Looking at all the difficulties surrounding the Committee, and considering the enormous jungle and morass that the present tariff has placed in their way, we think that they have done very well. Undoubtedly changes of detail will be made before the bill comes up for general debate, but the public will not fail to bear in mind that the most menacing condition that is or can be placed athwart the country's pathway, industrially and morally, is the piling up of money in the Treasury for which the Government has no honest use.

THE PUBLIC AND THE LOCOMOTIVE ENGINEERS.

A MEETING of delegates from fifteen divisions of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers was held in Tammany Hall on Sunday, at which the following curious preamble and resolutions were passed:

"Whereas, It is learned from good authority that the managers of the various railways throughout the country have combined in secretly aiding and assisting the management of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railway in their present trouble, and

"Whereas, Such action on the part of said managers is cowardly and unfair, therefore be it

"Resolved, (1.) That we, as representatives of the various divisions of the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers in this vicinity in convention assembled, do hereby denounce said action on the part of said managers, and declare that we, as an organization, are justified in resorting to extreme measures in overcoming this outside interference with the affairs of our brother engineers upon the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Railway.

"(2.) That to this end we recommend that, if the aforesaid difficulty is not settled within a reasonable time, upon a fair and reasonable basis, all the Brotherhood men upon the connecting lines of the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy system will resign their positions upon a given date.

"(3.) That if this action, as a means of last resort, is not sufficient to gain the just and reasonable demands of the engineers and firemen upon the aforesaid railway, we, as an entire organization throughout the United States, Canada, and Mexico, join issue with them in a universal demand for their acknowledged rights—of being paid the established rates for work actually performed."

One of the oddest hallucinations of labor agitators and organizers is the notion that they can somehow start a select little society which will be so strong that it will, by doing something on "a given date," in obedience to a preconcerted signal from somebody, be able to bring the whole American people to their knees, and be able to exact from them such concessions as are usually made only to the demands of a conquering army. Poor Powderly had this dream in his weary head when he started the Knights of Labor. His notion was that by getting all the trades into one organization, ruled despotically by a small Council, he could order "general strikes" on a "given date," and thus bring all the industry of the country to a standstill, and compel the community to treat with the Grand Master Workmen and the General Worthy Foremen as it would treat with the commander of an invading force which had just crushed the last attempt at armed resistance.

The public has been for some years—in fact, for nearly as long as people in our time remember any news of the day which does not concern them personally—accustomed to hearing Mr. P. M. Arthur and the Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers spoken of as a very conservative, prudent, and public-spirited body, forming a marked contrast in their management of their affairs to the other trades-unions. This view of them, too, has been fully justified by their course during the past ten years, and no journal has been more careful to take it than the *Nation* has been. We have refrained from any allusion to the hot-headed and demagogic beginnings of Arthur's career as a labor agitator. But now that he seems disposed to repeat his old follies, and convert every trade dispute into an attack on the whole community, and to try to paralyze the business of a whole nation, in order that a few hundred men may force a corporation to employ them at rates fixed by themselves, it seems time to recall his earlier performances as a labor manager.

He succeeded in 1873, as head of the Brotherhood, a very conservative man named Wilson, who refused to countenance a strike on the leased lines of the Pennsylvania Company in that year. When he took office, he was full of fight, and began a policy of steady striking on the New England roads. His strikes, being novelties both to the public and the roads, were mostly successful. The roads succumbed because the public opinion was in that early, rudimentary stage in which everything that "Labor" did or said seemed right. His plan of operations at

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that time was to decide on a strike secretly and give secret instructions to the engineers as to the hour at which the strike was to take place. Two hours' notice, and only two hours' notice, was then given to the company, and when the time came every engineer stopped his train wherever it happened to be, and stood by the engine for two hours more to give the company an opportunity to give way. If by that time it had made no concession, he took himself off, though we believe it was not uncommon for him to detach the locomotive and convey himself to the nearest station, leaving the train standing in the middle of the track, no matter how many passengers it contained, or what was the season or the weather. One of Arthur's strikes, and the most atrocious of all, was carried out in this manner on the Grand Trunk Line, in December, in the midst of Canadian snow and ice; and trains containing women and children were abandoned on the track, far from towns or houses, and men who were sent to work the engines were actually mobbed and driven off by the ruffians of the Brotherhood, acting under his directions.

At last, however, the companies were roused into resistance by Arthur's growing audacity. He had carried through five strikes in six months, and had boasted at a meeting of his followers in Faneuil Hall that he had only "to raise his hand to stop every railroad running out of Boston." This impudence was more than the community could stand, so when he made an onslaught on the Boston and Maine Road early in 1877, he was collared and subdued. His formal demands in this case were small—ten cents a day increased pay to sixty-seven men; but the real question involved was whether an irresponsible agitator should be allowed to take the management of the road out of the hands of the owners, and in defiance of the community. The corporation resisted him. They secured men enough to run a few trains during the first two critical days. To one of these men $1,500 in cash was offered if he would leave his engine; another was assaulted and badly beaten; and all of them were coaxed, or jeered at, or threatened and insulted from one end of the line to the other. But the company triumphed. In a few days it had the line in working order, and the public feeling ran so strongly in its favor that Arthur did not dare to carry out his threat of a general strike on the Boston roads. Had he done so, it would have been immediately met by the introduction into the Legislature of a law forbidding any corporation, under heavy penalties, to intrust a locomotive to a member of the Brotherhood. Such a measure, based on the principle that these men paid their highest allegiance to another power than the law of the State, and could not be relied on not to abandon trains full of passengers in dangerous positions, was, we understood at the time, drafted and ready for immediate submission. But it was not necessary. Arthur paused in his mad career, and was so sobered by the exhaustion of the funds of the Brotherhood in supporting the men whom he had induced to strike, that he turned over a new leaf, became the enemy of strikes, and a most useful and influential apostle of conciliation and moderation, and such he has remained until now.

We have no criticism to offer here on his quarrel with the Chicago, Burlington and Quincy Road. He may be right in his contention that the engineers ought not to be paid according to their experience and skill, and the responsibilities put on them, although, if he be, it must be because drivers of locomotives differ in mental and moral constitution from the rest of mankind. But his engineers have left the employment of this corporation voluntarily, and for reasons that seemed good to them. What they are now contending for is the right to be employed, at a rate of wages fixed by themselves, by men who do not wish to employ them on any terms. This is, in the eyes of the rational portion of the American people, a ridiculous claim; but, whether ridiculous or not, they will not permit a business dispute between one small knot of laborers and one railroad, or factory, or mine, to be made the pretext for suspending the trade and transportation of the entire nation, and threatening large cities with scarcity of food and provisions. The man who supposes that this will be submitted to is more foolish than we believe it is likely for any one who has had Arthur's experience ever to become. Therefore we trust he will cease his vaporing, and either settle his quarrel with the C., B. and Q., or give up trying to settle it, and go into some other line of activity. His threats just now are those of a public enemy, and he must be careful or he will get himself treated as such. The community will not put up with insolence from a person of his dimensions which it would resent by a great war if it came from a foreign statesman. If he has the power he says he has, it ought to be taken away from him; if he has not, and is trying to get it, he ought to be stopped.

THE FINANCIAL SITUATION OF MEXICO.

It is only within the last few years that an attempt to give an idea of Mexican finances has been worth the making. The finest calculation might be sponged from the slate, without warning, in the whole chaotic period between 1821 and 1876. Indeed, one of the things which have sorely bothered the heads of the statesmen of Mexico, not to speak of students of her affairs, has been the puzzle of determining the resultant of the various conflicting adjustments and compromises effected, from time to time, in regard to the national debt. Since the comprehensive financial legislation of 1885, however, something like method has been introduced into the madness of this part of the problem. And when we add the solidifying influence of twelve years passed without a revolution, the new impulses given to national development and foreign commerce, the greater regularity in governmental income and expenditures, we find ourselves in a position to arrive at a fair approximation to the true financial situation of Mexico to-day. The greatest single obstacle now in the way is the lack of clear and accurate statistics. In the last report of the Secretary of the Treasury appears a brief historical sketch of the glaring imperfections of the reports of his predecessors, in which it is admitted that, with all the improvements made in the *Memorias* of the present, they still come far short of presenting a full and satisfying account of the nation's finances. This can easily be assented to. Still, the material available is sufficient to enable one to indicate results broadly, and with a degree of accuracy perhaps as great as is necessary.

To begin, then, with Mexico's liabilities, the first thing to consider is the amount and burdensome nature of her foreign indebtedness. Fortunately, as has been said, we are delivered from the necessity of going into the maze of Mexico's numerous and complicated foreign loans prior to June, 1885, since on the 22d of that month a comprehensive law was passed consolidating all of Mexico's foreign debt into a new issue of bonds. This measure was certainly statesmanlike in its intention, at least, and was as little a repudiating scheme as could have been expected. The foreign bondholders, at any rate, submitted to its provisions with a good grace, and have probably been less anxious at the scaling down of the face value of their old bonds than over the question whether their new ones will prove to be a safe investment. According to the terms of the law referred to, the new bonds are to bear interest at 3 per cent., beginning with January, 1890. For 1886 the rate was fixed at 1 per cent., to be increased by the addition of ½ per cent. annually, until the 3 per cent. rate should be reached. The emission was to the amount of $150,000,000, of which, up to June, 1887, something more than $100,000,000 had been received by foreign creditors in lieu of their old bonds. In addition to this "consolidated debt," as it is called, there is a floating debt, secured by Treasury notes and Custom-house certificates, amounting to about $50,000,000. The last Congress authorized an additional loan of $62,500,000, about one-third of which, it is reported, has been negotiated at 8 per cent. There will result, therefore, a total funded debt of about $250,000,000, involving an annual interest charge of something like $12,000,000. For the year ending in July, 1886, the Treasury accounts show payments on the score of the public debt of $2,556,992. That, as we have shown, was when but a part of the consolidated debt was drawing interest, and that at a reduced rate, and when the new loan, involving an annual charge of at least $5,000,000, was not yet authorized. As has been said, then, Mexico's debts will represent after 1890 a tax on the nation of about $12,000,000 yearly.

Turning now to the question of regular Governmental expenditures, we are confronted with a singular difference between the way the Mexican Congress deals with the estimates submitted by heads of departments and the habit of our own House of Representatives in similar circumstances. In Mexico the Government always gets what it asks for, and usually a little more. For example,

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in 1885-6 it asked for $38,903,353, got $42,458,323, and spent but $31,672,836. That was the year of notable and forced economy, when public salaries were scaled down and every possible retrenchment was practised, so as to avert the threatening national bankruptcy. For 1886-7 the estimates called for over $37,000,000, and were voted accordingly. For 1887-8 they are $36,270,451. On the whole, taking the average of the last three or four years, and leaving out of the Treasury estimates the amounts needed for payment on the public debt, it seems doubtful if the necessary Governmental expenditures can be screwed down below $30,000,000 yearly. They were slightly over $29,000,000 in 1885-6, and the severe economy of that year is not likely to be repeated soon.

The Government is organized in nine departments, whose names and respective expenditures may be seen in the following table of estimates for 1887-88:

Legislative	$1,002,928
Executive	49,846
Judicial	439,994
Foreign relations	434,930
Gobernacion	3,466,882
Justice	1,399,850
Public Works	4,426,132
Treasury	11,664,391
War	13,386,495
	$36,271,448

Gobernacion includes the administering of public schools, the Post-office, police and militia, etc. The Treasury estimates embrace, of course, interest on the public debt. "Justice" includes the subordinate tribunals and the national technical and professional schools.

The receipts of the Federal Treasury during the five years ending in July, 1886, averaged $31,416,000. In 1883-84 they reached the sum of $37,620,000, undoubtedly the largest in the history of the country. For 1885-86 they were $27,810,909. This income arises from customs duties and internal taxation. The latter is a systematized levying on everything in sight, and appears to have produced about one-quarter of the total revenue in 1885-6. The principal items are: Stamps, $6,103,413; direct taxes (on sales, professions, real estate in the Federal District, etc.), $1,038,074; sales of church property, $220,618; lotteries, $273,074. The remainder of the national revenue is derived from the Post-office and Government Telegraph, from the sale of public lands, and the lease of railroads and other Government property, together with the receipts from customs duties. No clear idea can be obtained from the Treasury reports of the exact amount of the last item. But the total receipts are stated clearly enough, and are clearly enough considerably below the total expenditures. In fact, the budget has steadily shown a deficit for the past five years averaging $5,000,000, except in 1884-5, when it was over $15,000,000. It was unquestionably this repeated running behind that caused the last public loan.

As we have already made clear, the requirements of the Treasury will be heavier as the interest charge on the national debt goes on increasing. What is the prospect that the receipts will be augmented in an equal or greater proportion, as they will have to be, to prevent ultimate bankruptcy? Very poor, it seems to us. Certainly, there appears to be no possibility of extending the system of internal taxation. It had even to be slightly curtailed in the last fiscal year reported, and the revenue from it fell off more than $300,000. The only real hope of an increased income is in larger returns from the duties on foreign commerce. In point of exports, Mexico's foreign trade has shown a considerable growth in the last five years. Exports have increased from $29,928,697 in '80-81 to $43,647,717 in '85-86. Still, the increase has been almost wholly in the one item of precious metals. And, with the practical removal of all export duties, this means nothing for the income of the Government, whatever it may denote as to the general prosperity of the country.

No full and trustworthy statistics of imports are accessible, but it is undoubted that they have fallen off. We know, for example, that England's exports to Mexico fell from $9,513,522 in 1882 to $4,212,162 in 1885, and that the United States exported to Mexico in the same years goods to the value of $13,320,000 and $7,370,000 respectively. It would thus appear that the impetus given to Mexican trade by the opening of the American railroads was not as lasting as was hoped. Something may be expected from the general commercial rally just now prevalent, and possibly from the working of the new tariff, not yet a year in force. But there seems to be no likelihood that Mexico will find in her custom-houses material to bridge over the gap between her income and expenses. Retrenchment is scarcely possible, unless in the enormously disproportionate cost of the army. The Government may get up courage to try that, though only as a dire necessity. We sincerely hope that we are wrong in our conclusions, for we sympathize with the rulers of Mexico in their efforts to make head against her immense financial difficulties; but we cannot help anticipating a repetition of the old story of deferred and unpaid interest, then of repudiated (under the name of readjusted) debts.

THE DUPONTS AND THE DURANDS.

THERE is a very amusing story in a recent number of the Paris *Temps* illustrative of what it calls the "Americanization of our Manners." The particular "Americanization" to which it refers is the practice, which it alleges to be growing in Paris, of inviting to evening parties people with whom the host and hostess have no personal acquaintance. The writer evidently believes that American parties are at least partly made up of "entire strangers," and that it is the custom here for those who give balls or dances to send invitations to any one whom they would like to have, or whom they would like to be thought to have had, or of whom they have heard as frequenting other people's soirées. He intimates that it has gone so far, indeed, that at American parties watches and trinkets are as unsafe as they would be at a horse-race or a fire; that prudent people leave them at home when going to such entertainments; and that in Paris their example begins to be followed.

The story he tells in illustration of this is that of a certain M. Dupont and M. Durand, who had apartments in the same house in Paris, but who were bound by their leases not to give evening parties of any description, the proprietor, who lived in the building, having a strong objection thereto. Wishing very much, however, to have dances in their rooms, they demanded his permission and got it, on condition that they would both give their parties the same evening, so that he might not lose more than one night's rest. He then instructed his concierge that when the evening came he was to watch at the entrance and send Dupont's guests to Durand's apartment, and Durand's, in like manner, to Dupont's apartment, which he did. But, as the proprietor anticipated, it made, for a while, no difference to either guests or hosts. As none of the guests knew either Dupont or Durand, and as Dupont and Durand knew none of the guests, the fraud of the concierge was not discovered, and all went merry as a marriage-bell. At last, however, an acquaintance of Dupont did arrive, and, finding himself in Durand's apartment, gave the alarm; a panic spread among the guests, and they made a rush for Dupont's apartment. Their appearance revealed the truth to Durand's guests already there, and they in their turn made a rush for Dupont's apartment. The opposing currents met on the staircase, and the block was so alarming that the concierge, who was in tears of laughter, became alarmed, and sent for the policeman who was keeping order among the carriages in the street. He was an old soldier and a man of decision, and he promptly restored order by calling on all the Duponts to file to the right, and all the Durands to the left, and, when the ranks were properly formed, shouted, "En avant! Circulez!" and all went well, and each host soon had his own guests. But the confusion and nervous prostration in which they found him on their arrival can be readily imagined. The horrible truth had slipped out that his company were unknown to him, that he had filled his rooms with strangers, and had apparently no personal friends of his own whom he cared to see when he gave a fête.

The story is told as an actual occurrence, though doubtless somewhat embellished in the telling. But have similar things happened in this city of New York under like conditions, or might they have happened? Have we Duponts and Durands "in our midst," who appeal to that love of being in a crowd in a well-furnished house, where there is good eating and drinking going on, by which so many of us are animated, without caring particularly how we get there, who our companions are, or who invites us? Between people who accept invitations from rich strangers, and people who like to go to the houses of rich strangers whether they are invited or not, the line of demarcation is very faint, and the consequence is that the two classes are very apt to meet at balls and par-

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ties in greater or less numbers. There was a large reception in this city recently at which both were present in great force, and got tipsy together, and jostled the ladies in the dressing-rooms, and stole their wraps, and very nearly turned the fête into a scene of vulgar riot and debauch. But are such things common or even frequent?

Of course such customs are ruinous to anything that can be called manners. When the relation of host and guest is reduced simply to the offer and acceptance of a heavy meal on a certain evening, there can be neither authority on one side nor respect on the other. The house is simply a hotel, in which there is nothing to pay and the landlord is not responsible for valuables. On what costs men nothing, even the best men put little value. Dinners and suppers under one's own roof should stand for something more than a treat in a bar-room usually does, in order to put a guest under a sense of obligation. They should indicate at least previous and favorable knowledge of the guest, however slight or indirect, on the part of the host, some respect for his character, and some confidence that he has better reasons for behaving properly in a man's house than the fear of being kicked out. Hospitality which has no better motive than showing off to as large a crowd as possible how much money one has got, can hardly be called civilized intercourse at all. It is not much better than the show of wives which the King of the Niam-Niams made to Schweinfurth, the traveller. It has none of the moral foundation which all civilized communities now try to give to their social usages.

No city has probably done as much to swell the ranks of the Duponts and Durands as Washington, owing to the almost complete merger which has there taken place between public and private life. The practice of treating every man in office as the personal acquaintance of everybody who lives in the city, or can raise money enough to get there from any other part of the country, and obliging him to open his house to everybody who walks the streets, has brought attempts at privacy into more or less disrepute, and given everybody a sort of "natural right" to the hospitality of everybody who entertains at all. What makes this all the odder is, that there is no city in which there is so much talk about "etiquette," and so little etiquette which is of the slightest value as a regulator of social intercourse. Discussions about etiquette and decisions of knotty points of etiquette, in fact, if one might judge from the letters of newspaper correspondents, occupy a large part of the time of all those who are not seriously occupied with politics; but in no capital in the world has etiquette so little power, or is knowledge of it of so little use. In fact, if Washington customs were to spread to New York, the simplest hospitality would rapidly go the way of "New Year's calls."

AMOS BRONSON ALCOTT.

It is often noticed, when the tie between two life-long associates is broken by the death of one of them, that the other shows the effect of the shock from that moment, as if left only half alive—*nec superstes integer*. So close was the intercourse, for many years, between Mr. Alcott and Mr. Emerson—so perfect their mutual love and reverence—so constant their co-operation in the kind of work they did and the influence they exerted—that it was difficult to conceive of Mr. Alcott as living long alone; and it seemed eminently appropriate that part of the remaining interval of his life should be employed in writing his friend's memoir. They were singularly different in temperament, and yet singularly united. They were alike in simplicity and integrity of nature, as well as in their chosen place of residence and in the elevated influence they exercised. In all other respects they were unlike. Mr. Alcott was conspicuously an instance of what may be called the self-made man in literature. Without early advantages, and with no family traditions of culture, he took his place among the most refined though not among the most powerful exponents of the ideal attitude; whereas Mr. Emerson came of what Dr. Holmes called Brahmin blood, had behind him a line of educated clergymen, and had received the best that could be given in the way of training by the New England of his youth. Their temperaments were in many ways different: Emerson was shy and reserved, Alcott was effusive and cordial; Emerson repressed personal adulation, Alcott expanded under it; Emerson found in literature his natural function, Alcott came to it with such difficulty that Lowell wrote of him,

> "In this, as in all things, a lamb among men,
> He goes to sure death when he goes to his pen."

Emerson's style was enriched by varied knowledge, his use of which made one always wish for more. Alcott's reading lay only in one or two directions, and his use of it was sometimes fatiguing. Emerson's most serious poems were prolonged lyrics; Alcott could put no lyric line into his grave and sometimes weighty sonnets. Emerson was thrifty, and a good steward of his own affairs; Alcott always seemed in a stately way penniless, until the successful career of his daughter gave him ampler means. Emerson gave lectures with an air of such gracious humility that every hearer seemed to do part of the thinking; Alcott called his lectures "conversations," and then was made obviously unhappy if his monologue was seriously disturbed by any one else. Emerson's most startling early paradoxes were given with such dignity that those hearers most hilariously disposed were subdued to gravity; Alcott's most thoughtful sentences, at the same period, came with such a flavor of needless whimsicality as to make even the faithful smile.

Yet there was between them a tie as incapable of severance as that which united the Siamese twins. Mr. Emerson found in the once famous Chardon-Street and Bible Conventions no result so interesting as the "gradual but sure ascendancy" of Mr. Alcott's spirit—"in spite," wrote this plain-spoken friend, "of the incredulity and derision with which he is at first received, and in spite, we might add, of his own failures." Mr. Alcott, as has been said, devoted his last years to the delineation of Emerson as the greatest of men. Yet so sincere was this mutual admiration, so noble this love, that it is impossible to speak of it with anything but reverence; and the far wider fame and influence of Emerson made it for Alcott, during his whole life, an immense advantage to have the unfailing support of a friend so eminent.

For it must be remembered that during many years the public was scarcely in the habit of taking Mr. Alcott seriously. It received him, as Emerson said, "with incredulity and derision." His antecedents seemed a little questionable, to begin with. Born in Wolcott, Conn., November 29, 1799, and occupied for many years in the humble vocation of a travelling salesman in Virginia—not to say peddler—he came, in 1828, before the somewhat narrow intellectual circles of Boston in a wholly different light from Emerson, who had every advantage of local prestige. His school, which became celebrated through the 'Record of a School,' by his friend and assistant, Miss Elizabeth P. Peabody (Boston, 1835; 2d ed., 1836), was generally regarded as coming near the edge of absurdity, because of the rather obtrusive reverence paid in it to the off-hand remarks of children six years old, and because of the singular theory of vicarious punishment which sometimes led to the giving of physical pain to teacher instead of pupil. Yet this school undoubtedly anticipated in some respects the views of teaching now recognized; it won the warm approval of James Pierrepont Greaves, the pupil and English interpreter of Pestalozzi; and it led to the establishment of an "Alcott House School" at Ham (Surrey), in England, by Henry G. Wright, afterwards Mr. Alcott's co-laborer in another direction. Mr. Alcott himself visited this school in 1842, and was lionized to his heart's content—which is saying a good deal—among English reformers. Some account of this visit and of the English enterprise will be found in a paper by Mr. Emerson in the *Dial* for October, 1842. Mr. Alcott's first conspicuous social movement was in the very vague direction of the Fruitlands Community, at Harvard, Mass., a scheme which was as much wilder than Brook Farm as Brook Farm was than Stewart's dry-goods shop, and which was amusingly delineated by Miss Louisa Alcott in one of her minor sketches. His first intellectual demonstrations were in the "Orphic Sayings" of the *Dial*, which were regarded at the time as the *reductio ad absurdum* of Transcendentalism. How were people to take a man seriously who wrote, "The popular genesis is historical," and "Love globes, wisdom orbs everything"? These sentences now seem quite harmless, though perhaps a little enigmatical; but they were then held to be the worst shibboleth of that new bugbear, Transcendentalism, and they represented the most unpopular aspect of the *Dial*, while the more plain-spoken essays of Theodore Parker were what sold the numbers, so far as they ever did sell. Then, what Mr. Alcott called conversations, in his earlier days, were such startling improvisations, so full of seemingly studied whim and utter paradox, that those who went to learn remained to smile. There was plenty of thought in them, and much out-of-the-way literary knowledge; but, after all, the theories of race, food, genesis, and what not, left but little impression on the public mind. It awakened some surprise when the first volume of 'Appletons' Cyclopædia' (in 1857) contained a sketch of Alcott, written by Emerson. Thenceforward his claim to recognition stood on a basis a little firmer; but he had up to this time paid the price which a hopelessly ideal temperament must pay before it has established its right to live.

It was fortunate for Mr. Alcott that with this ideal tendency he combined in a high degree the qualities of moral and physical courage which have in all ages been held essential to the true sage. This was hardly tested in the milder and safer reforms, in which he took a certain enjoyment, partly founded on the prominence they gave him. He was unquestionably one of those who like to sit upon a

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platform, to be pointed out, *digito monstrari*, and he may have liked to feel that his venerable aspect had the effect of a benediction. But he was equally true to the anti-slavery movement, when that meant the sacrifice of friends, the diminution of his always scanty finances, and even the physical danger involved in mobs. Once at least, in a very conspicuous instance, he proved himself personally brave when many others proved cowards. On the night of the attempted rescue of the fugitive Anthony Burns, in Boston (May 26, 1854), after the door of the United States Court-house, where the slave was imprisoned, had been burst in, the few abolitionists who got inside were met by a much larger body of the Marshal's men, and were forced out again, after one of the deputy marshals had been killed. The crowd outside was amply sufficient to have made its way in and rescued the slave from the United States Marshal, who had but about thirty men and was taken wholly unprepared, as he afterwards admitted; but, unhappily for the assailants, owing to a miscarriage of the notice given at Faneuil Hall, the crowd itself was composed mostly of lookers-on, and not of men who meant business. The invaders being ejected, the Court-house steps were left empty, the crowd forming a semicircle below; while the Marshal's men fell back to the stairway, over which their pistols could be seen pointing into the empty and lighted hall which had just been the scene of conflict. It was a picturesque situation—a moment of truce; everybody waiting to see what would happen next. The next thing that happened was the calm advance from among the crowd of the dignified form of Mr. Alcott, who had just arrived on the scene. Ascending the first step, he paused, and said to one of the ejected assailants—as placidly as if in one of his own "conversations"—"Why are we not within?" The person addressed replied with some indignation, "Because these people will not stand by us." Mr. Alcott returned no answer, but, grasping his cane, ascended the steps, entirely alone, and stood for a moment a conspicuous figure, at the brightly-lighted doorway. A pistol-shot was fired from within, presumably at him, upon which the philosopher, looking quietly round and seeing that he had no followers, and that it would have been throwing away his life to proceed, turned and walked down the steps, with the same measured gait and without the slightest precipitancy of manner, reëntering the crowd which opened to receive him. This anecdote has not before appeared in print, so far as we know, but we have it from a participant in the affair, who declares that under the circumstances neither Socrates nor Plato could have behaved more handsomely.

It is probably true that in the later years of his life Mr. Alcott felt some reaction from the theological radicalism which at one time marked him, and which made him in this direction a source of influence over others. At the first annual meeting of the Free Religious Association in 1868, he reaffirmed his old attitude of the simple humanity of Jesus Christ, and of the essential identity of all forms of the religious sentiment. He said of this position:

> "So fine, so sublime a religion as ours, older than Christ, old as the Godhead, old as the soul, eternal as the heavens, solid as the rock, *is and only is;* nothing else is but that, and it is in us and is us; and nothing is our real selves but that in the breast."

And so identified was he with the whole spirit of that meeting that he said of it, "I have seen many charmed days, and shared sublime hopes; but this, of all days I have yet seen, is the most sublime." But during the later years of his life, though he took part in the very last meeting of the same Association, he seemed to revert more towards the historical Christianity in which his childhood was reared; although it is claimed by some of his intimate friends that his position was not essentially altered from what it was when he was held among the chiefs of liberalism. At any rate, the apparent change led to his taking an active part in various "symposia" held by Mr. Joseph Cook, at which the veteran free-thinker was received with many blandishments, and was introduced to strangers without compunction as "Mr. Alcott, the American Plato."

Mr. Alcott's published volumes were as follows: 'Conversations with Children on the Gospels, conducted and edited by A. B. Alcott,' 2 vols. (Boston: Munroe, 1836-7); 'Spiritual Culture, or Thoughts for the Consideration of Parents and Teachers' (Boston: Dowe, 1841 [this was anonymous, but was attributed to Mr. Alcott by Charles Lane in *Dial* iii, 417]); 'Tablets,' (Boston: Roberts, 1868); 'Concord Days' (Boston: Roberts, 1872); 'Sonnets and Canzonets' (Boston: Roberts, 1882). To these must be added a preliminary sketch of Emerson, printed but not published, and also many contributions to the *Dial* (1840–44), the *Radical*, and other magazines. In the *Atlantic Monthly* (ix, 443) he wrote one of the best sketches yet made of Thoreau, under the title "The Forester." But he was less disposed to pride himself upon his books than upon his chosen mode of influence, the conversation; and it was through this, rather than by anything placed in the permanent record of print, that his influence was exerted. He wrote in the *Dial*, in 1842, "We must come to the simplest intercourse—to Conversation and the Epistle. These are most potent agencies—the reformers of the world" (ii, 431). And he might well feel it a tribute to his real power in this chosen form of propagandism, that, after his audiences in the Eastern States had grown less numerous and less attentive, he should have found a wide circle scattered through different Western cities, who opened parlors and pulpits to him for an annual tour of conversation and discourse, sending him back each year happy, refreshed, and—wonder of all wonders!—with money in his purse.

Mr. Alcott contributed even less than Emerson to anything that can be called systematic thought; he was indeed more remote than Emerson from anything to be called a system. Yet the good that he did was not merely fragmentary and sporadic; it might rather be called, using one of his own high-sounding adjectives, atmospheric; it lay in the atmosphere of the man, his benign face, his pure life, his only too willing acceptance of everything that looked like original thought in others. More than all, it lay in the persistent moral activity that could outlive what Emerson called his "failure," could outgrow the censure of his critics, outgrow even his earlier self. In some respects he always remained the same, even to his weaknesses; there was always a certain air of high-souled attitudinizing; he still seemed at times what some one long since called him, "an innocent charlatan." Even his latest achievement, the "Concord Summer School of Philosophy," had always an indefinable air of posing for something that it was not. It undoubtedly fulfilled Mr. Alcott's most delicious visions to find himself the centre of an admiring group of young disciples, having the Assabet River for an Ilissus and the Concord elms for the historic plane-trees; but, after all, the institution, like its name, was a little incongruous; there was plenty of summer, something of philosophy, and very little school. Probably most of those who were assembled came with the desire to place themselves in contact with Mr. Alcott; and this was the highest compliment they could pay him. They instinctively felt, as all may well feel, that the essential fidelity of the man to great abstract principles made him a living exponent, not merely of the temporary school of Transcendentalism, but of the whole ideal attitude. Now that he has passed away, all his little vanities, if he had them—all his oracular way of peering into the dark and winning but little out of it—these defects, if they were defects, disappear in the sweetness and dignity of a life so prolonged and so honorable. There lives no man who ever found in Mr. Alcott an enemy; there exists no man who ever went to him for counsel and found him unsympathetic or impatient; while there are many men who, at the forming period of their intellectual existence, have derived from him a life-long impetus towards noble aims.

BULGARIA.—II.

HEIDELBERG, February 9, 1888.

THE assassination of the well-intentioned Emperor Alexander II. forms an important epoch in Bulgarian history. The Prince lost his kind and faithful protector, Bulgaria a well-wisher, and when Prince Alexander travelled to St. Petersburg to be present at his uncle's funeral, he became exposed to a number of subtle and dangerous influences. The Ring, having lost its confidence of spoiling the Bulgarians with the consent of their present representatives, did their best to bring about a change in the Constitution. They knew that, thanks to the venality of the Opposition leaders and to the unreasonableness of their followers, the Prince well-nigh despaired of furthering the development of his country through the existing ultra-democratic institutions. They hoped to get him into their hands, if he established his authority more firmly, and they set to work upon him and Alexander III., and the Russian Government in order to encourage the idea of suspending the Bulgarian Constitution. And as soon as the Prince had obtained from his people (July 13, 1881) full powers for organizing the country, we see the railway concession coming up again for discussion.

This time the Ring had summoned a formidable array of allies. Besides the Minister of Public Instruction, a native of Bohemia, only two Bulgarian Ministers attended the meeting of the Cabinet on July 30, 1881, whereas Russia was represented by M. Hitrovo, by Lieut.-Col. Remlingen (at the head of the Home Office and the Board of Public Works), by M. Kopitkin, and by a Gen. Struve, who had just arrived from St. Petersburg and gave himself out as being charged by the Imperial Government to claim the right of constructing a line from Rustchuk to Sofia. Struve suggested that the amount to be spent in preparatory labors should be left to him, but Messrs. Vulkovitch and Zhelaskovitch insisted upon fixing the amount at 300,000 francs, and maintained that the concession, subject to the consent of the Chamber, should be ultimately bestowed by public competition. If Gen. Struve should not obtain it, the 300,000 francs were to be refunded to him either by the contractor or by Government. Col. Remlingen was charged officially to notify Gen. Struve of this decision. But what did M. Remlingen do? He wrote to the General that the Government accorded him the exclusive privilege of studying the line, having his expenses paid, and submitting pro-

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posals for the construction of the railway. This shameful manœuvre was brought to light and frustrated, and when Col. Remlingen tried to prevent a Frenchman, Guyon, and a Bulgarian of the name of Adyenot from studying the line, the Prince interfered.

At this period the Prince and his Bulgarian Ministers began to doubt Gen. Struve's assertions as to the importance attached by the Russian Government to the construction of a "strategical" line. They finally prevailed upon M. Hitrovo to go to St. Petersburg and obtain from his Government either an advance of funds or the guarantee of a loan destined to the construction of the line. The Russian Cabinet met for the purpose, and refused both requests. At the same time Prince Alexander received permission from the Emperor to discharge Col. Remlingen, and to confer his post on one of the most able and trustworthy Bulgarians, on M. Natchevitch.

The Ring was driven to change tactics. M. Hitrovo leagued himself with the Extreme Left, whose press was showering abuse on the Prince. He organized armed bands and sent them across the Bosnian frontier to provoke an insurrection. Austria expressed its dissatisfaction in very clear terms, and the Prince felt exasperated at having to bear the responsibility for such a breach of international law. Not satisfied with this, M. Hitrovo tried to provoke a military pronunciamiento against the Prince. He issued a proclamation to all Russians serving in the Bulgarian army, notifying them that, he being the Emperor's sole representative, they need not obey any orders except those proceeding from him. The notice fell flat, as the Prince was popular among the officers, and the Russian Government found itself in honor bound to recall its Consul-General Hitrovo, and the Minister of War, Kryloff. To be sure, Prince Alexander had been obliged to proceed to Russia himself (April 27, 1882) in order to obtain their recall, and he was obliged now to accept Gen. Alexander Kaulbars as War Minister, and Gen. Soboleff as Minister of the Interior. The latter, a member of the Ring, was indefatigable in his efforts to obtain a railway concession for his friends, and both the new ministers flagrantly transgressed the instructions which Emperor Alexander III. had given them in his cousin's presence. He had told them to support the Prince with all their might in his efforts to reorganize Bulgaria, and he had ordered them to make common cause with the so-called Conservative party, which ought more justly to be denominated the Moderate Liberal party.

The two generals adopted a haughty and overbearing tone towards the Prince and his advisers; they allied themselves with the Opposition, and as soon as they discovered that their Bulgarian colleagues Natchevitch, Vulkovitch, and Greshoff were determined not to sacrifice their country's interests to a foreign ring, they founded a newspaper, the *Balkan*, out of Government funds, for the purpose of injuring and calumniating the Ministry. The Russian paper, *Novoye Vremya*, zealously joined in this abuse; and as soon as voices were raised in the Russian press in favor of Bulgaria, the official censors stepped in and silenced the Ring's adversaries. The two generals had within a short time acquired the epithet, *zhelezno-dorozhnie*, *i. e.*, "railroaders," so sharp was the insight of the people into the leading motives of their new ministers' policy. An honest man, M. Arsenieff, happening to be in charge of the diplomatic agency at Sofia, the generals annoyed him to such a degree that he did not rest till he was transferred to Berlin. Naturally, it never suited these intriguers that truthful reports on Bulgarian events should reach Baron Giers and his master.

The Sobranye which met on December 22, 1882, and in which the Conservatives had a majority, showed fight. It decided not to discuss the railway question until the Department of Public Works had been transferred from Gen. Soboleff to a Bulgarian. When M. Natchevitch had been charged with this post, the Assembly granted 300,000 francs for tracing the line, but only on condition of a public competition for the concession. The Russians did not accept their defeat; they were wily enough to conjure up an episode—a quarrel between the Synod and the Archbishop of Sofia—which led to the resignation of their Bulgarian colleagues. The Prince unhappily agreed to their leaving office, as he did not feel equal to an open rupture with Russia, which was inevitable if the two generals had been requested to give way. On taking leave, the three Ministers handed a memorandum to the Prince, in which the situation was clearly described and the future foretold. They pointed out that if he allowed the Russian generals to have their way, the patience of the country would be soon exhausted, and that if he opposed them, Russia would throw him overboard. It must be supposed that Prince Alexander was not unaware of this dangerous dilemma, but that, owing to the new Emperor's promise to continue his father's policy towards him and Bulgaria, he relied on setting matters straight at Moscow, where he was to assist at the coronation. It was merely a question how to tide over the period from February to May, and he saw no other way than by letting the Russians do as they pleased. He did make one attempt, to be sure, to denounce the two generals to the Czar and his Minister of Foreign Affairs, by despatching M. Stoiloff to St. Petersburg as diplomatic agent. But the Ring took care to keep all the doors closed at which M. Stoiloff knocked, and he had finally to return home without having seen either the Czar or M. de Giers.

While the Prince was travelling to Moscow via Constantinople and Darmstadt, the Bulgarian Assembly despatched its President and five members to St. Petersburg to lay the people's grievances before the Czar. The Ring was equal to the occasion. Soboleff himself was made to start from Sofia with a counter-deputation, and, the Czar refusing to receive Archbishop Simeon except in Soboleff's presence, the opportunity for confidential disclosures was lost. At last the Prince found himself in the Emperor's presence, and his earnest representations and solicitation produced an impression both on the Czar and on M. de Giers. He was promised the recall of Soboleff and Kaulbars, and the return to Sofia of Gen. Ernroth, who had earned such an excellent reputation there, and who told M. de Giers openly that he was opposed to all ideas of Russian railway enterprises in Bulgaria. Hardly, however, had the Prince turned his back on Russia, than he was officially informed of Ernroth's appointment being cancelled, and of M. Yonin's being appointed Consul-General at Sofia. He hurried home and arrived just in time to prevent the execution of Soboleff's latest design. The Ring had settled with the banker, Günzburg, that he should advance a loan of 75,000,000 francs for Bulgarian railways. To guarantee the interest on this loan, the cash in the Bulgarian exchequer, amounting to 15,000,000 francs, was to be despatched to St. Petersburg and deposited there. Though the Prince arrived in time to frustrate this plan, he was too late to prevent M. Barmoff from concluding an arrangement by which funds were procured for the future revolt. The principality owed Russia 26,000,000 francs for the military occupation during and after the war. The Czar generously decided that this money should not be transmitted to Russia, but should be exclusively spent for the good of Bulgaria. Sobeleff, however, signed an arrangement with the unprincipled Director of the Bulgarian Financial Department, to the effect that, in payment of the indemnity, a yearly sum of 1,600,000 francs should be placed at the disposal of the Russian Consulate-General. From this fund, according to our author, 1,500,000 francs were taken for the purpose of corrupting the officers, soldiers, and cadets, who kidnapped the Prince on August 21, 1886. There is a discrepancy between this statement, made on the authority of Major Gruyeff, the chief conspirator, and the pretty well-authenticated declaration of the Russian Ambassador in Turkey, that they had rid themselves of Prince Alexander at the cost of 300,000 francs. But it is easy to reconcile both statements, if we suppose 1,500,000 francs to have been withdrawn from the fund by M. Bogdanoff, the acting Agent, and by Col. Sakharoff, the military attaché, of which sum 300,000 francs were divided among the Bulgarians, while the rest was kept by the Russian conspirators.

It may be imagined that, flushed with this triumph over the Prince and the Bulgarians, the insolence of the two generals became insupportable. At M. Yonin's instigation, Gen. A. Kaulbars assembled the Russian officers in the beginning of September, 1883, at the camp of Kniazhevo, and told them that the Prince was Russia's enemy; that he had resolved to replace the Russian officers with Germans. Consequently, it became necessary that he should be deposed. To the General's surprise, he met with little response; the majority of the officers declared that, the Czar having ordered them to swear an oath of fidelity to Prince Alexander, he alone could discharge them from their obligation. They hastened to inform the Prince of Kaulbars's treachery; he showed himself at the camp, and, after an enthusiastic reception, was escorted home by the whole body of troops, 10,000 men, under command of their non-commissioned officers. Emboldened by this loyal demonstration, the Prince upbraided the generals, and, receiving an insolent answer, he bade them leave the palace, and told them that they had ceased to be his Ministers. The next day M. Yonin called and informed the Prince that, according to orders just received from St. Petersburg, the generals would remain and retain office. In this exasperating state of things, the Conservatives formed the plan of gaining over the Opposition by offering to make a coalition Ministry, and to accept the reëstablishment of the Tirnovo Constitution as a common programme. The Prince signified his approval, and when the new Assembly was opened on September 19, the generals were astounded to hear from M. Zankoff's own lips that all parties had coalesced for the purpose of saving Bulgaria. Soboleff and Kaulbars tried in vain to obtain M. Yonin's assent to the seizure and despatch to Siberia of all the leading politicians, and, not succeeding in this, they resigned office and left the country.

The Ring had in the meantime succeeded in persuading the three principal powers in Russia, the Czar, the military party, and the Panslavist leaders, that an independent Bulgaria was not reconcilable with Russian interests and Slavophil policy. It was resolved to upset the Prince's throne. Col. Nikolai Kaulbars was charged with the secret mission of sending home all Russian officers who had shown more obedience to Prince Alexander than to Gens. Soboleff and A. Kaulbars. It was settled that the Russians serving in the Bulgarian

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Army should in future not remain longer than three years in the country, so as to run less danger of becoming attached to the Prince and people, and of preferring Bulgarian liberty to Russian oppression. Zankoff was prevailed upon to oust his Conservative colleagues from the Ministry, but soon afterwards the Russians tossed him over, and brought Karaveloff into power, who had promised M. Koyander to reserve the Vakarel-Tzaribrod line for Russian contractors. A firm of the name of Gubonin, belonging to the Ring, whose representative, a worthless fellow of the name of Zavatchi, was M. Koyander's guest, felt sure of obtaining the concession, but a Bulgarian company, formed at the last instant by a certain Grosseff, underbid the foreigners, and was charged with the construction of the line. The Russian Consul-General at once abandoned Karaveloff, and took up Zankoff, on condition of his openly advocating the dethronement of Prince Alexander. Partly in the hope of obtaining supreme authority after that event, partly with the intention of wreaking vengeance on the man whose influence with the Czar had brought about the dismissal of so many high functionaries who had zealously toiled for the Ring, the whole set applied themselves to the task of undermining his throne. At St. Petersburg the report was spread that Prince Alexander was secretly leagued with Austria and Germany for the purpose of destroying Russia's preponderance in the Balkan Peninsula, and that he had thwarted all attempts to construct such lines as might be useful to Russia in case of war. Among the Panslavists he was denounced as an enemy of the orthodox faith and Slav propaganda. In Bulgaria he was represented as in disgrace with the Czar, and as the cause of the Czar's displeasure with the Bulgarians.

With the object of effecting this riddance, the rebellion of Eastern Rumelia against the Sultan was prepared by Col. Tchitchakoff, Russian military attaché at Philippopolis. Finding that this failed to effect his overthrow, Servia was either encouraged, or at least not discouraged from making war upon Bulgaria, from which country Russia at once recalled all her officers. To everybody's surprise, the Bulgarian army accomplished wonders under their ruler's able leadership, and so, as a last stratagem, the nocturnal surprise of the Prince was resorted to, and his forcible abduction.

The author believes, or pretends to believe, that it never could have been the deliberate aim of Russian policy to convert Bulgarian gratitude and reverence into hatred, and to overthrow a prince who, up to the very last, recognized Russia's claims to the gratitude of Bulgaria, and acknowledged that he owed his crown and authority to the Czar. He considers the Czar to have been deceived by the calumnies of the Ring, which wished to give the character of national vengeance to its acts of private revenge.

Prince Bismarck has just been telling us, in his great speech of February 6, that Russia has no need whatever of adopting further "defensive" measures on her western frontier, since nobody dreams of attacking her. To-day's papers state, on the other hand, that at a military council presided over by Generals Vannovski and Obrutcheff, it has been decided to go on carrying out all the movements of troops previously fixed upon. According to our author, the latter officer is one of the most important members of the Ring. Are we to infer that the contractors, foiled in Bulgaria, are trying to bring about a war for the purpose of lucre, and have persuaded the Czar that the European Peace League intends to attack him, in order to collect vast armies, huge storers of electricity, on the frontiers? At all events, we see that an individual cannot safely be trusted with the sole responsibility for the fate of one hundred millions of souls. If a government can be led into a series of false moves by a reckless set of speculators, how much more easily can it succumb to the combined influences of religious fanaticism, military pride and ambition, and, above all, of a general dissatisfaction with the internal condition of the country, which are now rampant in Russia!

THEODOR VON BUNSEN.

LANDOR AND ITALY.

GENOA, February 11, 1888.

PERHAPS here in Genoa, instead of thinking of English literature, I ought to be meditating on Columbus and the discovery of America, or on the Bank of St. George and the Italian commerce of the Levant. But then, I am staying at the Hôtel de la Ville, where Lady Blessington once lived and where Byron often visited her; I have seen on the corner of the Place de la Bourse the little tablet which marks the deathplace of Daniel O'Connell, and I have just come from Albaro and from visiting the villas once inhabited by Byron, Mrs. Shelley, Leigh Hunt, Dickens, and Landor. With leisure and opportunity, reading becomes as desultory, and runs in as strange grooves, as does conversation in a party of pleasant people. When I was ill at Pisa last spring, I saw every day the house of Byron on one side the Arno, and that of Shelley on the other; I followed them in their walks and drives, and was induced not only to visit many other places where they had lived or stayed, but to reread most of their poems, their letters, and their lives, as well as much of and about their contemporaries. In the Life of Lady Blessington were some charming letters both from Landor and from Dickens, which as of necessity compelled the perusal of their biographies as written by John Forster.

After all, the pleasantest impression of Landor, except that derived directly from his letters, and especially the glimpses of himself in his 'Imaginary Conversations,' comes from his portrait—one hesitates to call it an exaggerated one—drawn by Dickens in 'Bleak House.' In Mr. Boythorn we find all the pleasantest traits of Landor's character, with just hint enough at the unpleasant parts of it to enable us to see him at his best, as he shows himself in his letters. His intellectual vigor, as well as his violence and his coarseness, is displayed everywhere in his works. The qualities and defects of Landor's writings could scarcely be judged more truly, and certainly not treated more delicately, than by Mr. Lowell in the February number of the *Century;* but I doubt whether the 'Imaginary Conversations' will ever be much read or admired except by those who have lived or who are living in Landor's time, either in reality or in books. They are entirely too personal, too full of the author's own life and character, too restricted to the ideas and events of his time. After so many revolutions in Spain it is not easy to recall the details of the Spanish war in which Landor took part as a volunteer; nor the sequence of constitutional and unconstitutional acts during the reign of Ferdinand VII.; nor all the shades of difference in the characters of the last Grand Dukes of Tuscany. Nor can we now become very enthusiastic over the generals and dictators who founded the South American republics. Although Landor fondly and vainly imagined that he had never made one of his characters utter a word such as the man would not himself have used, all that he really did was to write dialogue between Landor himself and a man of wood or straw, whom he tried to make different from himself, but who still resembled him at least as much as his own brother, whose works he said were sometimes taken for his own. One enjoys them more with the help of Landor's Letters and his Biography.

For reasons of my own, I have been, for the last year, living in the Italy of the first third of this century, and have seldom been out of the Italian society of that time, except to make the acquaintance of the English and French who came here then, as they do now, very often leading an exclusive and insular life in the great towns. Here I have often had occasion to meet and hear of Landor, and have been entertained and amused, and even at times indignant, at his prejudices, his enthusiasms, and especially at what seemed to me his incapacity to understand the character of the people among whom he moved. Even when he is most violent and wrong-headed, he at times expresses himself with so much humor—which is not *always* coarse or obscene—as to disarm resentment.

Fiesole and Florence seem more particularly associated with Landor's name, but curious glimpses of him may be caught during the years when he was at Como, Pistoja, and Pisa. He saw very strange goings on between Queen Caroline and her low-born lover, when idling in his boat under the summer moon,

> "Where loveliest of all lakes the Lario sleeps
> Under the walls of Como":

and was much disturbed when an agent came out from England to take his testimony. From here, too, he wrote, "A scoundrel, one Monti, wrote a most violent invective, in the form of a Sonnet, against England."

At Pisa he refused to meet Shelley, who, he says later, "had got into a scrape about me with Byron," because "his conduct towards his first wife had made me distrustful of him," not thinking for a moment of any deficiencies in his own marital life. With Byron, who was also at Pisa, he was, of course, at loggerheads. Miss Clairmont, in giving an account of the odd English in Pisa, mentions "Walter Savage Landor, who will not see a single English person; says he is glad the country produces people of worth, but he will have nothing to do with them." From Pisa, too, in a letter to Southey, he writes one of his odd criticisms of Italian poets: "Some time or other I propose to finish Dante, which I began about eleven years ago, but wanted perseverance; a twentieth or thirtieth part of what I read was excellent. You cannot say the same of Ariosto. He is a carnival poet, but he is never very bad."

Landor was much influenced by his surroundings, and frequently a passage in the 'Imaginary Conversations' not only reflects the mood in which he sat down to write, but tells of something which he had just seen or heard, or records a recollection which had come back to him. Take, for example, the Ninth Conversation of volume i between the Marchese Pallavicini and Landor himself, the scene of which is laid on the steps of the very villa which I saw just now at Albaro. It is to lead up to an exposure of the brutality of an English general during the British occupation of Genoa — an exposure which Landor naïvely thinks far more scathing and effective than a speech in Parliament. The talk, however, is chiefly about Italian architecture, trees, gardens; one particular tree on the lake of Como for which Landor would have given millions rather than have it cut down; the lack of the appreciation of the beautiful shown by modern Italians, their general bad manners, dirt, and

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uncleanliness, both in country and town. Or take the Twelfth Conversation between Peter Leopold and the President Dupaty, with its discussion of Italian and especially of Tuscan character, running on into a rambling talk about miracles, religion, and superstition. Another example is the Conversation between Cavaliere Puntonichino and Mr. Denis Eusebius Talcranagh, in which the author tells the story in great detail of his petty quarrel with an English secretary of legation at Florence, full of abuse of Florence, of English, and especially of diplomatists.

Indeed, one of the great charms of the 'Conversations' is their unexpectedness and want of visible sequence; one never knows whither the writer's quickly changing moods will take him, or what surprises are not in store for the reader. In the long dialogue—if such it can be called—between the Duc de Richelieu, Sir Fire Coats, and Lady Glengrin, which begins in Genoa, is continued on board ship, and ends in Dublin, we have a long story about Tom Paine; the ill effects produced by his 'Age of Reason' on the life of an English country schoolmaster; long interviews with Paine at Paris, during and after the Revolution; the character of Napoleon; scenes of clerical and country life in mid-England, with the whole of a novel worthy of Fielding condensed into a few pages; an Irishman's visit to Rome and the Pope; life and manners in Ireland, and a discussion of the Irish question. In "Landor, English Visitor and Florentine Visitor," we find a picture of the life and character of the Grand Duke Ferdinand; a talk on Italian manners and customs; abuse of England, and especially of English Cabinet-government; curious criticisms on Italian literature and art; verses in praise of Shelley, Keats, and Burns; a reparation to Byron and Shelley; abuse of the *Edinburgh* and *Quarterly Reviews;* a skit at Wordsworth; and a lament at the contempt shown for art by all English sovereigns since Charles I.

The apologies to the *manes* of Shelley and Byron seemed necessary to Landor in the revulsion of feeling which came upon him after their untimely deaths; and they occur more than once. To Shelley, who was one of the earliest and warmest admirers of his "Gebir," he had been personally insulting; and Byron he had unfairly and spitefully attacked and criticised without mentioning his name, not only in the dialogue between Bishop Burnet and Humphrey Hardcastle, where Byron was represented by George Nelly, and Southey (in the blindness of Landor's admiration) stood for Milton, but also in an absurd, petty, and even ignorant way, in the Conversation between the Abbé Delille and Walter Landor, which contains some remarks on French and Italian poets that, if not just judgments, are at least clever and original.

When Landor leaves the domain of what he has himself witnessed and experienced, he becomes wild, absurd, and too often trivial. The Conversations between ancient Greeks and Romans should be excepted, because of the fitness and propriety of these the judgment of the reader must be guided by a great familiarity with the classics, which Landor had, and by a large experience of humanity, in which he was notably deficient. What I particularly refer to are the Conversations the scene of which is laid in Russia, Poland, or the East, on which his authorities were imperfect, and the spirit of which he by his nature could not understand.

Dialogues have been a favorite device of literary men since the times of Plato and Lucian; but it is a curious coincidence that the appearance of the first volumes of the 'Imaginary Conversations' should have been so nearly contemporaneous with that of the 'Operette Morali' of Leopardi. Landor's first volume, if my memory serves me right, came out in 1824, Leopardi's book in 1826, but his dialogues had all previously appeared in periodicals either in Milan or Florence. The inspiration, the leading motives, of the two books are very dissimilar, but I can never read one without thinking of the other. E. S.

Correspondence.

A CORRECTION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the article headed "The Civil Service as a Profession," published in the current number of your journal, you say:

"Therefore, let the candidate observe carefully whether he has passed a 'general' or a 'special' examination, for if the latter, his chances of appointment are slight. In 'special' examinations (as for examiners in the Pension Office), the entire eligible list is sent to the appointing officer, and the man at the foot is as likely to be appointed as the one at the head."

Will you permit me to say that upon this subject you have been singularly misinformed? The whole list of eligibles is not certified as stated by you. It is true that formerly the whole list was certified whenever a requisition was made for persons eligible to the position of special pension examiner, but within a few months after I became one of the Civil-Service Commissioners an order was made by the Commission that only the usual number of names—at that time four—should be certified in response to such a requisition. The practice of certifying the whole list of special-pension-examiner eligibles was a bad one, and would probably never have been deemed necessary to the efficiency of the pension service if the appointment of the 150 special pension examiners appointed in 1884 had not been authorized at the commencement of the very exciting Presidential campaign of that year. It is also true that formerly the whole list of persons eligible to places in the Department of State was certified, but under the new rules such a certification cannot now be made. Only three names from any list of eligibles—the three at the head—can be certified to any department. In short, in no examination for admission to the classified civil service is the whole list of eligibles now certified to any appointing officer.

I have probably said enough to convince you that the objections made by you to the manner in which the Civil-Service Act is being executed are without foundation in fact.

I have written this, for your information, with a hasty pen; but the pen, though hasty, is an accurate one.

In conclusion, I am constrained to say that I deprecate your use of the doubting word "if" in the sentence: "If the Civil-Service Act continues to be maintained," etc. That act will continue to be maintained. In the best interests of the Government it must be maintained; and all that is necessary to assure its maintenance by general consent—no, by general demand—is the enlightenment of the people concerning its operations, and the extension of the system of appointments which has been established by it within what is known as the classified service, to every part of the executive civil service of the United States.

Very respectfully, JOHN H. OBERLY.

UNITED STATES CIVIL-SERVICE COMMISSION,
WASHINGTON, D. C., March 4, 1888.

PENAL EXPATRIATION.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Perhaps the most questionable feature of a law which itself has proved to be of questionable utility is the paragraph of the revised anti-socialistic bill framed by the German Government and recently presented to the German Parliament for enactment, conferring fuller and more arbitrary power upon the police to banish Socialists and all such persons, subjects as well as aliens, as may entertain and express opinions esteemed dangerous to society and subversive of the empire. The intimacy of modern international intercourse and the comity of civilized States would seem to demand that every nation should deal with its criminal classes within its own borders. The right of any State to banish its objectionable citizens or subjects implies the right to impose upon other States a burden which it confesses itself incapable or unwilling to bear, and thus to use them as penal colonies. If Germany should decide to ship her Socialists to Camerun or to any other territory under her own jurisdiction, no other government would think of protesting against such a measure, however inhuman it might be. Deportation of this kind is solely a matter of internal policy; it may be morally execrable and, from an industrial point of view, suicidal, but it concerns only the nation which practises it, and her colonies which suffer from it. But Germany has no better right to send worthless and hurtful portions of her populations to America, as she is constantly doing, than America has to import into Germany shiploads of rattlesnakes and potato-bugs. The fact that many of the persons thus expatriated were not as wicked as they were assumed to be, and have often become useful citizens of freer countries, does not affect, in the slightest degree, the principle involved.

In the jealous and turbulent democracies of ancient Greece, ostracism was not a mark of infamy, but a badge of honorable distinction; and the same may be said of the exile to which the European revolutionists of 1848 were condemned. Indeed, this holds true, in the main, of all banishment for political or religious opinions. Prussia owes much of her industrial wealth and prosperity to the enlightened policy which in 1685, gave an asylum to the Huguenots banished by the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and in 1731 and 1732 welcomed the Salzburg Emigrants, victims of the bigotry of the Archbishop Leopold Anton, Count of Firmian. These two events may be regarded as two most important upward movements in the rise of Prussia to her present position of undisputed political ascendency over France and Austria.

Nowadays, however, nations do not, as a rule, send their foremost men into exile. If they happen to have an Aristides or a Themistocles, a Cimon or a Coriolanus, they usually prize and try to profit by the rare possession. They endure with patience even the bunkum of their blatherskites and demagogues instead of putting them over the boundaries as the Athenians did the blatant Hyperbolus. So far from banishing the most intelligent and industrious members of the community on account of theological or ecclesiastical differences, they tolerate such nuisances as walking delegates and professional strike-organizers. There is no doubt that the great majority of those who are now expatriated by European governments are persons who "leave their country for their country's good," and seldom become a boon to the lands in which they take up their abode.

But besides these semi-political refugees, of whom Herr Most and the Chicago Anarchists

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are fair specimens, and in the practical application of whose crude theories error leads invariably to crime, thousands of paupers, imbeciles, vagabonds, confirmed invalids without any means of support, incorrigible offenders, and other vicious characters are landed annually on the shores of the United States. Only a few days ago (on the twelfth of February) the Bavarian police in Munich shipped a gang of this sort to New York *via* Bremen. One of them, Carl Fensterwalder, an old jail-bird, confesses that he was permitted to choose between five years' hard labor in the penitentiary (*Zuchthaus*) and emigration to the United States, and naturally preferred the latter alternative, as affording him a fresh and freer field for the peculiar kind of activity for which he had become notorious. Another, Joseph Rietberger by name, was a sickly and semi-idiotic pauper, who just came out of the hospital, and had hitherto passed the greater part of his life in the poorhouse. These two individuals may be taken as representatives of the lot. Each was furnished with a new suit of clothes, and sent under police supervision to Bremen, and thence, in the steerage, to New York, where they were to be paid twenty dollars apiece by the German Consul and forwarded by him to Omaha and other places in the West. Especial care seems to have been taken to distribute them as widely as possible over the country, no two of them having the same destination. This was done in order to avoid exciting suspicion, and not from any merciful desire to lessen the burden of pauperism and crime for us, by letting many American cities bear it, instead of imposing it upon a single community. The Bavarian police magistrate did not bid farewell to his erring and unfortunate countrymen who had had the high privilege of prospective American citizenship so suddenly thrust upon them, without a parting word of advice, and that was, "not to let the United States Consul in Munich know anything of the arrangement, lest he should succeed in frustrating it." It is to be hoped that the Collector of the port in New York, to whom a telegram has been sent, will detect this international fraud and reship the precious cargo to the fatherland. If, unfortunately, the speciousness of new clothes should enable the rapscallions to escape his vigilance, it is certainly desirable that they should be sent westward with all speed, before a reporter of the New York *Tribune* gets hold of them and urges them to apply for a pension as the easiest and quickest way of relieving their distress.

This incident furnishes a good example of what is constantly going on in all parts of Germany. Every two or three weeks the police officers have a so-called *razzia*, *i. e.*, they swoop down on the haunts of criminals, vagrants, and other vicious or worthless persons in different wards of the city and bring them up before the police court. Many are sent to their own homes or native towns, if it is possible to ascertain where they belong, but the worst characters are regarded as only fit to swell the population of the great republic over the sea.

There is also another source from which a vast stream of useless and injurious immigration is poured into the United States every year. Any one who has lived a long time in Germany and become intimately acquainted with the history of many families belonging to the middle and upper classes, will be surprised to discover how very large a number of them have prodigal sons in our "far country." After every other effort to reform the scapegraces has failed, they are sent to America to shift for themselves. In some instances the experiment proves successful; a new environment develops in them better qualities, and they grow into decent and worthy members of society. In most cases, however, they are black sheep dyed in the wool with depravity, which nothing can wash out. It would be easy, too, to make a long list of scions of nobility who are leading the lives of scalawags in our large cities. In view of these facts, it is high time that greater diligence should be used in warding off this floatage of morally and socially wrecked humanity, which is borne to us on every tide of foreign immigration. V.

MUNICH, February 16, 1888.

RAILROAD RATES FIXED BY LAW IN MISSOURI.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your issue No. 1183, in an article headed "The Iowa Railroads," you use the following language:

"The proposal to fix rates on freight by an act of the Legislature is, we believe, something entirely new, going beyond anything hitherto proposed in any country in the matter of regulation of railroad property. The utmost that other civilized States have done is to create commissions or boards to consider, through actual judicial investigation, what 'reasonable maximum rates' are. No Legislature has, we believe, thus far taken this task on itself."

In the year 1875 the Legislature of the State of Missouri passed an act classifying railroads and regulating passenger rates, and classifying freight and regulating freight rates. By this act all freight transported upon any railroad or part of railroad in the State was divided into "four general classes," designated "as first, second, third, and fourth classes," and "seven special classes," designated "as class D, E, F, G, H, I, and J." The act then establishes "maximum rates" on each class of freight. These "maximum rates" are based on distance, so much "for the first twenty-five miles," so much additional for "the second twenty-five miles," and so much additional for "each additional twenty-five miles or fractional part thereof" over or under "thirteen miles."

For example: "Class E shall comprise flour in lots of fifty barrels or more, and lime in lots of twenty-four barrels or more." The rate of freight on class E is "not exceeding twelve cents per barrel for the first twenty-five miles, and not exceeding eight cents per barrel for the second twenty-five miles, and not exceeding four cents per barrel for each additional twenty-five miles, or fractional part thereof, unless the fraction be less than thirteen miles, in which case the rate shall not exceed two cents per barrel for said fractional part, unless the whole distance be over two hundred miles, when no greater rate than one cent per barrel shall be charged for each additional twenty-five miles over said two hundred miles."

The penalty for a violation of these provisions is "a fine of not exceeding two hundred dollars for each and every offence," to be paid by any agent or officer of the road who shall in any way violate or attempt to violate the law; and the person paying the overcharges can recover "three times the amount taken or received from him in excess of the rates prescribed by" the law. By the same act a board of three railroad commissioners is established, and they are given power to reduce the rates fixed by law "whenever, in their judgment, it can be equitably done." Substantially the same penalty is affixed to a violation, by overcharge, of the rates established by the commissioners as to a violation of the rates fixed by law.

These provisions are still a part of the law of the State of Missouri.

By section 14 of article 12 of the State Constitution of 1875, it is provided that "the General Assembly shall pass laws to correct abuses and prevent unjust discrimination and extortion in the rates of freight and passenger tariffs on the different railroads in this State; and shall, from time to time, pass laws establishing reasonable maximum rates of charges for the transportation of passengers and freight on said railroads, and enforce all such laws by adequate penalties."

The proposed legislation in Iowa would, therefore, seem to be not without precedent.

Yours truly, A. R. STROTHER.

KANSAS CITY, MO., March 3, 1888.

THE IMPORTATION OF LEAD.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The enclosed communication is clipped from the Chicago *Mining Review* of February 16:

"I desire to call attention to serious menace to the lead-mining and smelting interests of the United States, arising from the enormous increase of importations of lead ores from the Republic of Mexico *which come in without paying tariff duties*. Either through the imperfections of existing laws or through the wrongful administration of the laws, Mexican ores containing lead and silver are classified by the Custom-house authorities at Paso del Norte, and presumably at other places of entry, as *silver ores*, and are admitted free of duty when the silver content of the ore, reckoned at $1.29 per ounce, exceeds in value the lead content of the ore at forty cents per unit. . . .

"If free trade in Mexican ores is allowed to continue and grow at its present rate, we can foresee irreparable injury and speedy destruction to lead mining and smelting in the United States. The situation demands prompt and vigorous action on the part of the owners of lead-producing mines, in securing either necessary legislation or the proper enforcement of the laws."

Granting the figures—or doubling them, for that matter—it still remains true that the imposition of any prohibitory tax on these ores merely results in lessening the amount of freight carried by United States railroads, and in a diminution in the smelting industry of the Rocky Mountain region. The prices now ruling are such as to yield only the same average profit on Mexican ores as on those mined in the United States to the smelting concerns treating them.

It is curious to note, too, that coincidently with this "enormous increase" of imported lead ores, the price of lead has materially risen. With the demand for lead (in the ore) at all our smelting works, to enable them to smelt the "lean" ores which prevail in this region, and for which the works pay, quite irrespective of its "nationality," it is not easy to foresee the "irreparable injury and speedy destruction to lead mining and smelting in the United States" predicted in the *Review*. R. C.

GOLDEN, COL., February 22, 1888.

DENOMINATIONAL BLENDING.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your article on "The Blending of Denominations" (*Nation*, No. 1183) interested me very much. I think, however, that one may fairly distinguish between the development of the "denominational instinct" and the "strengthening of sectarian prejudices." The history of American Christianity during the last fifty years presents far more examples of the former process than of the latter. Indeed, I know of but one important Protestant body which can properly be said to be, as a whole, intensely sectarian. Presbyterianism and Con-

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gregationalism are a great deal more distinct from each other now, and a great deal less likely to think of "blending," than at the beginning of the century, when they did blend, after a fashion, much to the ultimate advantage of Presbyterianism. But while each of the two systems has become, at least on the ecclesiastical side, more true to its own historical attitude, both have long practically ceased to maintain the old Puritan theory of an unalterable polity, and adherents of both are among the warm friends of church unity. And I can conceive of a very effective organization of Christian forces in this country which would not obliterate denominational lines.

What you say of Congregationalists and conservative Unitarians might be, and has been, illustrated in other ways. Whatever one thinks of the denials of the early Unitarians, it is certain that they were defending the divine fatherhood against men who had unintentionally done their utmost to make it incredible, and the divine unity against unconscious tritheists. As to the latter point, a quotation from the Athanasian Creed was once taken by a Unitarian and by an Orthodox Congregationalist, for a statement of Unitarian doctrine.

Your mention, in another column of the same issue, of the proposed collection at Leipsic of publications relating to the religious history of the United States, prompts the question whether there is anything like a complete collection of that sort in this country. Partial ones of great value, of course, exist, and additions to them are welcomed. But I am not sure that an attempt like that which Dr. Gregory is now making in behalf of a German university has ever been made here, and very sure that, if not, it ought to be made at once. W. G. A.

GUILFORD, CONN., March 3, 1888.

THE CRADLE OF THE ARYAN RACE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In your number of March 1st an opinion is ascribed to me, I do not know on whose authority, which I never held. In my book, 'Die Arier,' I distinctly locate the birthplace of the Aryans in the great swampy region, the Palus Magna of mediæval writers, in which the river Dnieper takes its rise. The idea of southwestern Germany being the cradle of the Aryan race sprang from the fertile brain of the late Lazarus Geiger, with whom should rest authorship and responsibility.

Respectfully, THEODOR POESCHE.

WASHINGTON, D.C., No. 1224 12TH ST., March 3, 1888.

[In Max Müller's "Poesche restricts their home to the sources of the Danube" ('Biographies of Words,' etc., p. 107), "Danube" is probably a misprint for *Dnieper*.—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

THE 'Early Days of Mormonism,' by J. H. Kennedy, with portrait and other illustrations; and 'What is the Bible?' by Prof. George T. Ladd, are in the press of Chas. Scribner's Sons.

Thomas Whittaker will shortly publish 'Lectures on the Prayer Book,' by the Rev. W. A. Snively.

Through D. Appleton & Co. the Rev. J. I. Mombert will issue by subscription a 'History of Charles the Great (Charlemagne)' in one octavo volume.

'Ten Years of Massachusetts'—that is, Massachusetts as reflected in her legislation during the past decade—by Raymond L. Bridgman, is announced by D. C. Heath & Co., Boston.

P. Blakiston, Son & Co., Philadelphia, announce 'Chemical Technology: The Application of Chemistry to the Arts and Manufactures,' edited by Charles E. Groves, F.R.S., and Wm. Thorp, B.Sc., F.I.C., in about eight volumes, with numerous illustrations.

Ginn & Co. bring out immediately 'Helps to the Intelligent Study of College Preparatory Latin,' by Prof. Karl P. Harrington.

Among D. Lothrop Co.'s forthcoming publications are 'Volcanoes and Earthquakes,' by Samuel Kneeland, and 'The Deathless Book,' by the Rev. D. O. Mears.

Simultaneously with Macmillan's series of lives of English Statesmen comes the beginning of W. H. Allen & Co.'s "Statesmen Series," to be edited by Mr. Lloyd C. Sanders. The first volume, 'Beaconsfield,' by Mr. T. E. Kebbel, is now ready, and among those to follow are 'O'Connell,' by Mr. J. A. Hamilton, 'Gambetta,' by Mr. F. A. Marzials, 'Gortchakoff,' by Mr. Charles Marvin, and the 'Prince Consort,' by Miss Yonge. The editor will himself write the life of 'Palmerston,' already handled in an earlier and still-born series by the late Anthony Trollope, who was always as ready to prepare the biography of Cæsar, Cicero, Thackeray, or Palmerston as he was to turn out a novel or a book of travels.

The pleasant announcement comes from London that we are to have a new edition of Colley Cibber's 'Apology,' the best theatrical autobiography in existence. It will be published by Mr. Nimmo uniform with his recent edition of Dr. Doran's 'Their Majesties' Servants.' The editing has been intrusted to Mr. Robert W. Lowe, than whom there is no one more competent. Cibber's 'Apology' is one of the books which cry aloud for a new edition, as the latest, the so-called Bellchambers edition, is half a century old and was ill made.

The 'Geographical Review of the Fishing Industries and Fishing Communities for the year 1880,' just issued from the Government Printing Office, is not so stale as its date might imply, for it is really half a census volume by coöperation, though issued by the Fish Commission. Prof. G. Brown Goode is the responsible author, and the contents are full of interest and instruction. An appendix contains a curious compilation of "Historical References to the Fisheries of New England" from the earliest times, by Mr. A. Howard Clark, and its literary flavor makes one wish for it a separate reprint in a more handy form. It appears that at Ipswich, Mass., as far back as 1637, shad and alewives were used for fertilizing the soil.

Cassell's 'Pocket Guide to Europe' comes to us afresh in its very handy form. The revision asserted on its title-page has not extended to the list of United States diplomatic and consular agents on pages 464–467, though, thanks to the stability of that service under our present Administration, the defects we have observed are not serious.

Dr. Francis H. Brown's 'Medical Register for New England' (Boston: Cupples & Hurd) has an established character as a well-edited and trustworthy record for the medicinal, dental, and pharmaceutical professions. It is now issued in a new edition, brought down to the close of the last year. Its scheme is (1) to enumerate and describe the associations and societies within its scope, with lists of officers; (2) to do the same by asylums, etc.; (3) to include miscellaneous allied matters; and (4) to give the membership of the several State medical societies.

Another class is served by Mr. Albert S. Bolles's 'Bankers' Almanac and Register' (Homans Publishing Co.), of which the first of the semi-annual editions for 1888 lies before us. Besides the information strictly pertinent to the title, a "list of reliable attorneys" in the United States and in Canada is appended.

A volume of 'Patriotic Addresses' delivered in America and England from 1850 to 1885 by Henry Ward Beecher has been compiled by John R. Howard (Fords, Howard & Hulbert). The contents have been well chosen, and well represent Mr. Beecher's extraordinary powers as an orator, and his eminent services while abroad to the struggling cause of the Union—services which no other American was, on the whole, so competent to perform. The compiler has prefixed a biographical sketch of Mr. Beecher, written from the point of view of close personal intimacy, but with discrimination. The portrait engravings other than those of Mr. Beecher himself are for the most part pretty bad. The print is clear and the volume well calculated for popular circulation. We quote a passage from the Manchester speech of October 9, 1863, for its bearing on a recent controversy in these columns: "It has been said that she [New York] sold her slaves. No slander was ever greater. The most careful provision was made against sale. No man travelling out of the State of New York after the passage of the Emancipation Act was permitted to have any slave with him, unless he gave bonds for his reappearance with him," etc. (p. 446).

'Reform of London Government and of City Guilds,' by J. F. B. Firth, is the latest addition to Sydney Buxton's "Imperial Parliament" series (London: Swan Sonnenschein). No one has more completely identified himself with this question than Mr. Firth; hence for a succinct survey of the arguments in favor of London municipal reform, no better book than the one before us can be recommended. The question at issue is a momentous one, and must soon come to the front in English politics. Before many decades elapse, turtle soup at the public cost will cease to tickle the palate of the London alderman. Mr. Firth's booklet will help to hasten this consummation.

We have already noticed the memoir of the late Prof. Fleeming Jenkin by Mr. Robert Louis Stevenson as published in its detached form. This memoir forms, for the general reader, much the most interesting portion of the two volumes of 'Papers, Literary, Scientific, etc.,' which are Prof. Jenkin's literary monument (Longmans). The rest of vol. i is filled with reviews in the Scottish quarterlies, and articles in various periodicals, on the "Agamemnon" and "Trachiniae," on Darwin and the 'Origin of Species' (1867), on Lucretius and the Atomic Theory, on Mrs. Siddons as *Lady Macbeth*, on Talma on the actor's art, on the antique Greek dress for women (illustrated), on rhythm in English verse, on George Eliot, on artist and critic, together with an original three-act play, "Griselda." The second volume is occupied with papers on economic, mathematical, and technical subjects—trade-unions, supply and demand, incidence of taxes, technical education, submarine telegraphy, etc., etc. This list shows the range of the writer's sympathies and acquirements. His limitations are suggested by his belief that his argumentation against Darwin in the *North British Review* had demonstrated the theory of the origin of species to be without sufficient support from the evidence, and "false by accumulative proof."

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The January number of the *English Historical Review* opens with a review, by Mr. G. W. Prothero, of "Gneist on the English Constitution"—not his 'History of the Constitution' alone, but also his work upon the English Parliament, being the subject of the review—only those works, it will be noticed, which have been translated into English. It is a profitable article to read, as not merely are Gneist's opinions stated with lucidity and criticised intelligently, but the critic has opinions of his own which are worth considering. The next article is by Miss Robinson, "The Claim of the House of Orleans to Milan"—a claim, it is well known, which is the key to the most important international events of the beginning of the sixteenth century. The paper states clearly the nature of the claim, after which we have not so much a discussion of its validity as an excellent sketch of the historical events growing out of it; the present article, part i, ending with the accession of Francesco Sforza to the ducal throne of Milan in 1450. The third article, "Benoît de Boigne," by Sidney J. Owen, is, like an earlier article upon Dupleix by the same writer, devoted to the history of India, in connection with the establishment of the British rule there. De Boigne was, says the author, "the most eminent of these European adventurers, alike from his abilities and character, the greatness of his achievements, and their momentous consequences." He was a Savoyard by birth, was born in 1751, and died in 1830. Of the other contents of the number we will mention a posthumous paper by the late J. F. McLennan on "The Origin of Exogamy," and a review, by Dr. Robertson Smith, of Renan's "Histoire du Peuple d'Israël."

The December number of the *Antiquary* begins with a paper by Mr. G. Laurence Gomme upon "Open-air Assemblies"—the subject of the book by which he first made his reputation. The present article contains some interesting illustrations of this early custom in English towns and manors. This is followed by one of Sir J. H. Ramsay's useful articles upon royal accounts—a concluding article upon the "Accounts of Edward IV." A paper upon "The Customs of Dymock" contains a valuable statement of the legalized customs of the manor, as confirmed by Cromwell in 1657. The article upon London Theatres (No. 7), by Mr. Ordish, is the conclusion of "Whitefriars: Salisbury Court." The illustrated series of articles upon "The Crosses of Nottinghamshire," by A. Stapleton, has part iv in this number and part v in the January number, where we also find an illustrated paper upon "The Bells of Kent." Other articles in the January number are "The Christmas Pantomime," by Mr. Gomme; "London Homes of Dr. Johnson," by C. A. Ward; "English Religious Drama," by W. H. Hudson, and "Henry Howard, Earl of Surrey" (illustrated), by William Brailsford.

Sir Charles Bernard, late Chief Commissioner of Burmah, contributes a strikingly clear and interesting account of that country to the February *Scottish Geographical Magazine*. After describing its physical features, he treats of the people, whose numbers he puts at 9,250,000, a little over one-half being Burmese. Of their condition he draws an unusually bright picture. Their wages are four times as high as those of the natives of India, and their manner of living proportionately more comfortable. There are no great landlords, nobility, nor aristocracy, save the officials. Every village has a school attached to its monastery, in which the boys are taught to read and write. Sir Charles speaks highly of the Buddhist priests, numbering 25,000, the strictness with which they keep their vows of celibacy and poverty, and the respect in which they are held by the people. The staple industry is agriculture, rice being the principal crop. The teak in Lower Burmah is nearly exhausted, but there are still vast teak forests in the upper country, which are to be carefully preserved by the Government. Organized resistance to the English, the guerrilla warfare, has ceased, but dacoity is such a social institution that it will take a generation or two to root it out. A Burmese maiden will not smile on a youth who has not shown his prowess as a dacoit. It is singular that notwithstanding the high wages and the special inducements offered by the Government to Indian immigrants, very few come or can be prevailed upon to stay. Upper Burmah does not yet pay, but Lower Burmah yields a million annually to the Indian exchequer.

The principal article in the February Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society is an account of an exploration of the Rio Dôce, a Brazilian stream falling into the Atlantic just north of Rio de Janeiro, by W. J. Steains. Though the basin of the river is very fertile, containing some of the richest land in the empire, it is almost unexplored, and is inhabited only by a race of Indians, who have prevented any regular settlement on its banks. At Guandú, about a hundred miles from its mouth, Mr. Steains came upon the miserable remnant of a colony of our own people, who, at the close of the war of the Rebellion, were induced by the glowing promises of the Brazilians to leave the South and settle in this wilderness. Four or five only of the original number were left, too poor to get away. The Indians, the Botocudo, with whom he lived for two months, he believes to be undoubtedly cannibals.

The French have recently succeeded in taking a gunboat from eastern Senegambia down the Niger to Timbuctoo. The greatest difficulty which Lieut. Caron encountered was the lack of fuel; the inhabitants of the countries passed through, though unfriendly, not interfering with their progress. Bandiagara, the principal city of the Toucouleurs, is described as a very important Mussulman centre. "The city seems like a vast monastery, where one hears only the chants of the muezzin and sees only people at prayer." Notwithstanding this appearance of devotion, the people are excessively depraved. It does not appear that any of the party actually entered Timbuctoo, nor was the commander able to make a treaty with the Touaregs, who are now the masters of it, so great was the opposition of the chiefs and the Moorish merchants who hold a monopoly of the trade. Though unsuccessful in this respect, the large collection of the fauna and flora, and the observations of the river, its course, commerce, and inhabitants, promise to add very largely to our knowledge of this rarely visited region.

The Russian Imperial Academy of Sciences and the Geographical Society have on hand a new and extensive expedition, which it is intended to carry out during the present year. This expedition, which has in view purely scientific as well as practical ends, aims at the prosecution of various investigations in obscure and little known localities in Siberia, viz.: in the Narymsk district, settled by Tunguses, Ostiaks, and several other native tribes, which are gradually dying out. The expedition intends to prosecute its investigations for the space of three years. It will be undertaken by Mr. Adrianoff, a learned member of the Geographical Society. The programme is not yet fully worked out; the collection of ethnographical and statistical data will enter into it, the latter being taken for the Tomsk Statistical Committee, among others. In addition to this, the expedition will study the local dialects.

The Franklin Society of Providence, R. I., has lately issued a report on the Geology of Rhode Island that will prove of value to the working geologist. It contains a list of all geological and geographical publications concerning the State, and a brief account of their contents; a list of fossils and minerals, and of localities of geological interest. As preparation for future work, the report advocates the preparation of a good topographical map, such as that now under way in Massachusetts. If the Franklin Society and the Newport Natural History Society act in concert, they can doubtless secure this result, and a modest annual appropriation for the geological coloring of the maps as well.

Mr. William R. Jenkins has republished 'La Neuvaine de Colette' in his "Romans Choisis." This pretty little romance appeared anonymously in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* in September and October last, and was republished in a volume in January, still without any author's name, by Calmann Lévy (Boston: Schoenhof). It is bright and lively, in some parts really charming, and always interesting, and it is entirely unobjectionable in the direction in which French stories so often offend. At the same time it has absolutely no moral aim to render it unattractive to the most frivolous reader, and neither psychological analysis, nor realism, nor literary theory of any kind to offend the old-fashioned few who do not read to be tortured or instructed in pessimism, but only to be entertained. An English translation has just been brought out by D. Appleton & Co.

Among recent important Paris publications is the fourth volume of 'La Fontaine,' edited by M. Henri Regnier, in Hachette's collection of the "Grands Écrivains de la France." The first three volumes contained the Fables; the present is the first volume of the 'Contes et Nouvelles.' Hachette has also published 'Beaumarchais et ses œuvres; précis de sa vie et histoire de son esprit,' by M. E. Lintilhac. Another work on the same subject, by the way, has just been issued by Plon & Nourrit: 'L'Histoire de Beaumarchais, par Gudin de la Brenellerie: mémoires inédits publiés sur les manuscrits originaux,' by M. Maurice Tourneux. The same publishers announce, to appear soon, the second and concluding volume of Monseigneur Ricard's work on the famous Abbé Maury, 'Le Cardinal Maury, 1791–1817.' The first volume, 'L'Abbé Maury, 1746–1791' (Boston: Schoenhof), appeared towards the end of last year.

Félix Alcan has just published the second volume of the 'Papiers de Barthélemy, ambassadeur de France en Suisse, 1792–1797,' edited by M. Jean Kaulek, head of the Historical Department of the Archives of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. The present volume embraces the period from January to August, 1793.

New and old are relative terms, and the "new edition" of Webster's Dictionary now being delivered in parts to subscribers in Germany by Asher & Co., Berlin, is, to judge from the specimen page, a simple reprint from the plates of the latest edition in our market (1880). It is sold for seven dollars and a half.

On February 22 a hundred years had elapsed since Arthur Schopenhauer first saw the light in Danzig. It is proposed to publish a complete collection of his private letters. The volume will be under the editorial care of Dr. Ludwig Schemann of the University of Göttingen, well known for his acquaintance with the works of Richard Wagner, who made the great pessimistic philosopher his guide. The

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book will be published by F. A. Brockhaus of Leipzig, and all the receipts are to go towards the Schopenhauer monument fund. Letters in the possession of persons in this country may be sent in care of Dr. Cyrus Adler, Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore, Md., who will have them copied and returned to their possessors as soon as possible.

—The March *Century* has no one article that rises very much in interest above the rest, but there are half-a-dozen of real excellence. Mr. John Bigelow's account of the home and personality of De Chaumont, who gave Franklin the hospitality of his house in Paris, is a pleasant illustration of the friendship which existed between France and America in the days of our Revolution; and the story of the speculations of the French syndicate, as we should now term it, in northern New York, is also an interesting piece of local history. The Chaumonts, by means of it, left their name upon our map. The episode of the making of the tunnel from Libby Prison, by which over a hundred prisoners found their way out, is told with great spirit, and gives a touch of variety to the War-Papers series. Mr. Roosevelt's description of his ranch and its employments, and of the character of the Bad Lands, near which it is situated, with a few anecdotes of personal experience, makes a good paper; and the portraits of Bismarck are equivalent to an article. By far the most important contribution is Mr. George Kennan's exhibit of the state of Russian political prisoners while in confinement before trial, or afterwards in the interval between sentence and deportation to Siberia, in which period, according to the words ascribed to a Director of the Imperial Police, the purpose of the Government is "to break their character." This means, to so reduce their physical and mental strength that they will never recover any vigor of mind or body. The instances given are revolting to the extreme of inhumanity, and yet Mr. Kennan states that he does not think there is any exaggeration in the narratives told him. If only a portion were true, however, the verdict of civilized men would be little modified. One touching anecdote is related of how the prisoners in the House of Detention succeeded in eluding the authorities, so that on our centennial Fourth of July they hung their cell-bars on the court with little American flags and colors made of rags, which were of course soon seized by the guards; but at night they illuminated also with inch-long pieces of candle which they had distributed to each other through the water-pipes leading from cell to cell. Considering who these prisoners were, and what their fate probably has been in the twelve years since, the incident is one of unspeakable pathos.

—The moiety of the Walter L. Newberry estate falling to the library bearing his name in Chicago is $2,149,201.60, truly a princely foundation for a library, and an endowment surpassed, we suppose, by no other. Even the Astor, after thirty-nine years of benefactions from the Astor family, counts a smaller endowment fund, $1,430,112.23, summing up donations and increase to date. The Newberry Library's promise, however, is rather more brilliant than the beginning; for it appears that more than half of the property, as well in the aggregate as in the half reserved for the library, consists largely in unproductive real estate. Yet the net income, after deducting $50,000 specially appropriated for the purchase of books and general expenses, amounts, since December 9, 1885, to $67,778.12. But this condition of the funds probably makes it difficult for the trustees to do as much at the start as they otherwise would in the way of building. Temporary quarters are occupied by the collection at present, which numbered January 1 6,457 volumes and 4,907 pamphlets. About 4,500 of the works belong to the class of American history; and 584 are the bibliographical apparatus, a department of the first necessity, if a library expects to do thorough cataloguing. Mr. W. F. Poole, of long experience in the Chicago Library and elsewhere, is the librarian, and his well-known genius for the work may be expected to benefit the public with something original and practical, in building as well as in management. The trustees have decided to make the library a library of reference.

—The death of Miss Alcott, which occurred on Tuesday, is made the sadder by its close sequence upon her father's dying on Sunday. No daughter could have been more devoted, and few have had more trying occasions for filial self-sacrifice. She derived from her mother, to whom the family mainly owed its support while being reared, the practical qualities so wofully lacking in her father. Her literary gift may have been a divided inheritance. With the exception of 'Hospital Sketches,' we believe all her work falls under the head of fiction, and much the greater part of this addressed to the young. Yet she drew so largely upon her own experience that a good deal of the family history and of history in a larger if not very important sense—such as is inherent in Hawthorne's 'Blithedale Romance'—was conveyed in her many volumes. Her success was remarkable, but we doubt if she valued it for any reason so much as for its enabling her to bring comfort to a home always on the verge of poverty, and especially to the parent who has just passed away. Opinions differ as to the quality of her juvenile tales, and we must ourselves profess not to regard them with the same favor that the public has shown, or to think them free from the fault sometimes of unreality, and too often of having the adult reader in mind instead of the child alone. We judge her, too, to have reached the limit of her inventiveness, so that she will be less missed from the walks of literature than from the social circle to which her amiable qualities endeared her.

—If we may judge from the Preliminary Report of the American Eclipse Expedition to Japan, lately published by Prof. Todd, some compensation, if not astronomical, may be found for the severe disappointment of eclipse day, in that the labors of the naturalist of the party, Dr. Holland, may be expected to result in much good to science. During the sojourn of the Expedition, and with the able assistance of native collectors, the work of the botanist went on almost daily—the work of the entomologist by day and by night. The acquisitions of insect fauna will prove much the most valuable, of which, in addition to his own collections of 6,000 specimens representing 1,200 species, mainly *lepidoptera* and *coleoptera*, Dr. Holland obtained by purchase the entire collection of the *pyralidæ* of Japan made by the well-known authority, Mr. H. Pryer, and representing the labors of nearly seventeen years. This contains about 4,000 specimens of nearly 400 species, the larger part of them undetermined as yet, and possibly new to science. The collection covers the entire group of the Japanese islands, including the Loo-Choo and the Bonin Islands, and contains typical specimens of many of the forms described in recent years by Mr. A. G. Butler of the British Museum. A monograph on the *pyralidæ* of Japan is now in preparation. Other work of the Expedition, on the ascent of various mountains and volcanic cones in Japan, from 6,000 to 13,000 feet elevation, will be reported to the Harvard College Observatory.

—Gen. Francis A. Walker, in the *Quarterly Journal of Economics* for January, makes some suggestions about the next, the eleventh census, and presents very interesting information about the last census, concerning which there is no more competent authority. Condemned for its extravagance, the tenth census was, in reality, very economical; the cost of it per head of the population, aside from printing and engraving, being only 9.68 cents, which is less than a cent a head more than the cost of the ninth census, although the population of the country had greatly increased in the meantime, and a great variety and extent of new statistical work was undertaken, and the traditional classes were advanced into far minuter details. Gen. Walker's original estimates of the cost of the work were, for reasons that he states, far exceeded; but the expense of it, $4,853,350, aside from printing and engraving, was kept within this limit only by the most painful economy at all points where saving was possible, and by pushing the clerical force forward at a rate of which Government offices in Washington have little experience. As to printing, engraving, and paper, the cost of printing the last report of the Commissioner of Agriculture was $200,000; and the cost of printing the eighteen quarto volumes of the census, already published, including the four quarto volumes yet to come, including also all the other printed matter of the census—the bulletins, two octavo volumes of the Compendium, etc.—will be less than the cost of printing the Agricultural reports since 1880. Although ninety-nine hundredths of the four remaining volumes have been for some time stereotyped, and only await an appropriation for printing and binding, the duration of the work suggests (so near are we to the beginning of a new enumeration) the advisability, from an economical point of view, of making the office permanent. This would avoid the necessity of suddenly raising and then disbanding a large force, to begin anew with workers without experience. Prof. Walker, also, would have the census taken once in five years, and confined to population and probably agriculture. In the intervening years the other statistics might be collected; and in this way the census takers, having fewer inquiries to make at one time, would attain a greater accuracy. The Bureau of Statistics of Labor in the Interior Department, which has had charge of the work since 1850, should have the supervision of it. The census of 1880 failed outright only in respect to churches and private schools. Our mortality statistics, however, leave much to be desired. Gen. Walker has words of strong praise for the treatment of the returns of deaths by Dr. Billings and his corps of assistants throughout the country; yet seems to think that it requires a very considerable effort to bring the number of deaths reported up to seventy per cent. of those actually occurring during the year. Aside from the class of births and deaths, the United States have occupied almost from their beginning the first place among the nations as to the extent and variety of their statistics. The other main articles in this number of the *Quarterly* are Prof. Hadley's on the workings of the Inter-State Commerce Law, and Mr. Sidney Webb's on the rate of interest and the laws of distribution.

—An unusually interesting discovery has been made by the American School of Classical Studies at Athens. Icaria has been found, the first home of the god Dionysus in Attica, and the birthplace of the Greek drama. The Ger-

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man scholar Milchhöfer, on his way from Marathon to Athens last May, discovered at a little place called Sto Dionyso a choragic monument in the apse of a ruined church. The ruins showed that an important sanctuary had stood there, an inscription showed that an offering was dedicated by an Icarian, and the inference was easy that this was Icaria. The ruins lie at the foot of the northeast slope of Mt. Pentelicus, in a thick grove of pines, surrounded by glens rich in springs and large plane trees, with two glimpses of the sea—one of the most beautiful spots in Attica. Milchhöfer issued an appeal for the careful examination of the spot, which was echoed by the French archæologist Reinach. Early last autumn Professor Merriam, the Director of the American School, applied for permission to excavate there. After many delays, the permission was granted. One of the members of the school took a hammock and provisions, and established himself in an untenanted building near the ruins, and hired a dozen workmen. A number of fragments of works of art have been found, and the most complete proof from inscriptions that this was the sanctuary of Dionysus at Icaria.

—We learn further that the site of the sanctuary of the Kabeiroi in Bœotia, mentioned by Pausanias (ix,25,5), has been discovered, and will be excavated by the German Institute in Athens. The manner of its discovery was characteristic: Some small bronze votive cows bearing the inscription ἱερὸν Καβείρων were offered for sale in Athens, and the attention of M. Kavvadias, the Inspector of Antiquities, being called to them, he followed up the matter, and traced them to a dealer in antiquities at Thebes. In company with Dr. Dörpfeld, he went thither, found the men who had dug them up, and from them learned that the site of discovery was near Thespiæ. The two gentlemen visited the place and satisfied themselves of its identity, with the result announced above. M. Kavvadias, by the way, has recently begun work again at Epidauros, it being his intention this time to lay bare everything connected with the sanctuary of Asklepios. We learn that already the excavations have yielded valuable results, such as the discovery of the walls of the sanctuary, fragments of columns, two altars, and a doorway. Among the objects found are 500 votive animals in terracotta, more than a hundred votive cows in bronze and lead, and a large number of fragments of painted vases, probably also votive. These investigations do not seem likely to contribute much to the knowledge of Greek art, but if they clear up some of the mystery regarding the Kabeiroi and their cult, they will be an important contribution to the study of mythology.

—We can recommend as a highly interesting bit of biography the short life of Alfred Krupp, lately written by Schmidt-Weissenfels and published by Rosenbaum & Hart of Berlin. In an age like ours, the story of any man's rise from poverty to almost fabulous wealth can hardly fail of possessing a certain amount of dramatic interest for everybody. All of us—even the austere sociologists who manage the campaign against "capital"—are so keenly alive to the conveniences of a personal surplus that when we hear of a man who has become enormously rich we like to know just how the thing was done. But it is not always that the story of a modern money-king's career has that morally exhilarating quality which ought to pertain to good biography. A fortune made by the manipulation of stocks, or by a lucky investment in the nick of time, or by getting Congress to help one build a railroad, or by securing a monopoly for one's wares through legislation, may perhaps touch the carnal imagination, but it can hardly stir the deeps of one's moral nature. But the life of Krupp, as told by Schmidt-Weissenfels, is a continual object lesson upon the winning qualities of energy, courage, and self-reliance. We do not say that the life has no other suggestions, or that it presents nothing but edification to the moral philosopher. Whether the invention of a cast-steel breech-loading cannon, a little more deadly than anything any one had made before, is to be regarded as a benefit to the human race, is a perplexing question which we cannot now discuss. It was a question in which Krupp did not interest himself. His ambition was for Prussia, and there can be no doubt whatever that the two thousand Krupp guns that encircled Napoleon at Sedan September 1, 1870, were of great "benefit" to Prussia. From beginning to end, Krupp's reliance was upon the superiority of what he had to sell. When competition was going against him, he concentrated his energies upon the production of a better article. Not the least interesting part of Schmidt-Weissenfels's sketch is to be found in the extensive quotations he gives from the various manifestoes issued by Krupp to his workmen after social democracy and the labor question had invaded his territory. In one of these we find the following:

"In the various classes of society there are people who erroneously hope for the betterment of their position from changes in the constitution, the government, or the laws, and in so doing neglect the most essential agencies, which lie in their own power. Industry, order, and economy are the best and safest protection against the distress complained of, and, where these are lacking, the best government and the best laws do no good."

We should think that labor literature of this sort might be useful at the present time both in Germany and in some other countries.

BOLLES'S NATIONAL BANK ACT.

The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning. By Albert S. Bolles, editor of the *Bankers' Magazine*, etc. New York: Homans Publishing Co.

THE national banking system has been in operation twenty-five years, and in October, 1887, there were 3,049 national banks doing business, with a capital of $578,462,765 and deposits amounting to $1,249,477,126. The immense resources represented by these amounts are managed by over six thousand presidents and cashiers, to say nothing of directors, all of whom need to know something of the laws of the United States under which their banks are operated. The "National Currency Act" became a law on February 25, 1863. Owing to some imperfections it was superseded by the amended act of June 3, 1864, and the last-mentioned law, with the amendments and additions since made, forms what is generally known as the "National Bank Act."

In the course of twenty-five years the practical operation of this collection of laws has been very thoroughly tested. They have been construed in legal contests between the banks and their debtors and creditors, in judicial reviews of official action, and in opinions of the law officers of the United States. Almost every point upon which questions can arise has been interpreted by the courts. When, to the law itself and the history of its enactment, are added the decisions of judicial tribunals, the opinions of law officers, and the rules of administration adopted by the Comptroller of the Currency, the Treasurer of the United States, and the Secretary of the Treasury, a very large mass of material is collected, which must be studied by those who desire to know the true effect of each section of the National Bank Act. The managers of the 3,000 banks are daily beset with questions arising in the transaction of business, which must be promptly decided with due regard to the latest construction of legal enactment. 'The National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning' is the result of an attempt to compile and arrange in concise form for ready reference the numerous laws, amendments, decisions, opinions, and official regulations, that form the code under which the business of national banking is to-day conducted, and by which are determined the rights and liabilities of stockholders and customers, and the duties of bank and Government officials. The value of an exhaustive and reliable work of this description cannot be too highly estimated, and every public officer dealing with national banks, and every official of the latter, would find his labors lightened by it.

An examination of this book unfortunately discloses that it does not fulfil the promise that its title and scope imply. It may be said in approval that the arrangement is excellent, the index full, and that the information given in the appendix as to the organization, extension, and management of national banking associations, and for the handling of United States bonds and the redemption of currency, is from official sources, and apparently reliable. Further credit should be given for the accurate references to the judicial decisions applying to each section quoted. There are in the body of the book nineteen chapters, each treating of a special subject, among them: "Powers of the Comptroller," "Organization of National Banking Associations," "Powers of National Banking Associations," "Rights and Liabilities of Shareholders," "Interest," "Taxation," "Criminal Offences," etc., etc. The sections of the National Banking Law applying to each subject are grouped in the corresponding chapter, and, as each section is taken up, the necessary explanations are made, fortified by references to the various decisions, opinions, and regulations which affect the practical operation of that portion of the law.

Mr. Bolles is well known as the editor of the *Bankers' Magazine*, and as the author of a financial history of the United States, and of several other books on kindred subjects. He is also Professor of Political Economy and Finance in the University of Pennsylvania. This, his last work, is one of the best, but it is the least original. Much of the material has been derived from sources to which no credit is given. The impression apparently sought to be produced is, that the book is the result of a laborious exploration of an unknown field; that the cases and opinions cited have for the first time been gathered from the State and Federal reports, and from other original documents. The value of the book would have been materially enhanced if full information had been given as to the origin and growth of the Banking Act, and the commentary upon it, with due credit to the various writers upon these and kindred subjects, whose publications have the high sanction of general approval. These references might have been embodied in a preface sketching the gradual growth of the material which Mr. Bolles has so skilfully utilized.

The absence of such references is a grave defect, and is but poorly compensated for by any factitious credit for original research which the author may acquire. It is important to know the form of the law at different stages of its history; how the language and effect of the act of 1863 differed from that of the act of 1864, or

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as it subsequently appeared in the Revised Statutes of the United States. It is further exceedingly valuable in legal practice to understand the underlying reasons that led to the various changes and developments of the law as they occurred from time to time. All this, we repeat, might have been explained in a preface. But, further, an analogous defect pervades the body of the work in that it does not give the dates of decisions cited, or the adjudicating tribunals, or the dates of the official opinions. The preface might have set forth the comparative values of decisions on the same point in Federal and State courts, and thus aided laymen to form some intelligent opinion as to the worth of those decisions. Where there are conflicting decisions, no attempt is made to correlate the points of agreement so as to arrive at the best attainable resultant. This to a lawyer may be no great disadvantage, but the book is intended for laymen, for bankers to refer to at a moment's notice. As another result of the absence of a comprehensive view of the material handled, obsolete laws are given prominence when they should have been omitted; decisions are cited, without distinctive remark, which have been seriously affected as authorities by those of later dates and of higher courts; and laws actually in force are omitted, because erroneously supposed to be obsolete.

An example of the retention of an obsolete law is that of the sections imposing the two-cent stamp tax on bank checks (pp. 272–273) without referring to the repeal, in 1883, of this law, so long regarded by the banks and the public as unequal and burdensome. The chapter on taxation, commencing on page 222, affords an example of a citation of decisions without regard to their order in date or relative force. No subject has been so prolific of controversy in the courts as this, and it is to-day of vital importance to the banks. The decisions rendered have been most contradictory and confusing, and require to be most carefully arranged and considered in order that a national bank in any given State may acquire intelligent information as to the course of conduct it should pursue in order to avoid unjust taxation. The failure so to arrange and consider in this chapter is rendered more conspicuous by the fact that Mr. Chauncey P. Williams of Albany has prepared a most exhaustive and satisfactory paper on the subject, which was read at the Convention of the American Bankers' Association at Pittsburgh in October last.

A most important omission in the book of Mr. Bolles is that of section 5242 of the United States Revised Statutes, providing that no attachment, injunction, or execution shall be issued in any suit in any State, county, or municipal court against a national bank, before final judgment. This section is necessary to the protection of the banking business, and prior to 1882 the courts had rendered several decisions recognizing its force. The act of July 12, 1882, contained a proviso radically changing the standing of national banks before judicial tribunals, and immediately a question arose whether section 5242 was abrogated by the later act. It was then decided that the section had not been affected by the act of July 12, 1882, and that it continued in force as before.

It only remains to consider the sources from which Mr. Bolles has drawn the main part of the material for his book, as to which source he has maintained a strict silence. The ground he has covered, far from being an unknown field, had previously been investigated by many explorers. There are a very large number of works similar in character to the one under examination, in which some parts of the subject have been treated with a skill and the roughness leaving little to be desired. First and foremost, the reports of the Comptrollers of the Currency from 1863 to 1887 are a mine which has been freely drawn on. The report for 1875 contains a synopsis of all the decisions of the United States Supreme Court affecting national banks made up to that date. This synopsis of decisions was enlarged the next year so as to contain not only decisions of the United States Supreme Court, but those of State courts of last resort, and has been continued and enlarged by new cases year by year to the present time. Another source is the very valuable compilation of national-bank cases by the editors of the Albany *Law Journal*, Messrs. Thompson & Brown, all cases to 1878 having been compiled by the former, and those between 1878 and 1881 by the latter. The work on 'Banks and Banking' by Mr. Morse has doubtless afforded many suggestions to the author. Mr. Morse's work is often cited as an authority in the courts, and has been mentioned with approval in several judicial decisions. Although not of equal merit with the foregoing, another compilation of the National Banking Law has been made by Mr. Ball of Chicago. These compilations and studies of the National Bank Law and its judicial meaning represent an immense amount of preliminary labor in clearing the ground and collecting material, that nullifies the apparent claim of Mr. Bolles to the credit of original investigation.

Similarly, the facts in regard to the relations between the Government and the banks, and the official application of the law, had previously been collected in a number of publications—banking periodicals and books of instructions to national banks. The report of the Comptroller of the Currency for 1878 contained a carefully drawn "summary of the principal requirements and restrictions of the National Bank Act," of nine pages, from an official standpoint, which to-day remains without material change the guide of the Comptroller's office. This summary was reprinted by that office in 1883-84 as part of a little volume of 'Instructions for the Organization and Management of National Banks.' This material is printed entire in the 'National Bank Act and its Judicial Meaning,' without a suggestion of credit or a quotation mark to indicate its origin. Mr. Bolles is not the only one who has treated Government publications in this way. Many book-makers seem to consider them common plunder, and use them without acknowledgment. The Government does not suffer by this. It is rather an advantage to have public documents quoted and intelligently commented upon. The ensuing evil is the lowering of the dignity of authorship and the confounding of all literary morality.

TOLSTOI AND KOROLENKO.

A Russian Proprietor, and Other Stories. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Nathan Haskell Dole. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

What to Do? Thoughts Evoked by the Census of Moscow. By Count Lyof N. Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Isabel F. Hapgood. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. 1887.

What People Live By. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated by Mrs. Aline Delano. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

In Pursuit of Happiness. By Count Leo Tolstoi. Translated from the Russian by Mrs. Aline Delano. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

The Vagrant, and Other Tales. By Vladímir Korolénko. Translated from the Russian by Mrs. Aline Delano. Thomas Y. Crowell & Co.

In the *Nineteenth Century* of April, 1879, Mr. Ralston, speaking of Tolstoi's 'War and Peace' and 'Anna Karénina,' said: "Neither of these works seems likely to be translated into English." A few months ago we were told in a public print by a New York publisher that "few translations are read, and Russian translations least of all"; and that "one translation in a hundred does pay." And now we have in English nearly all of the twelve octavo volumes of Tolstoi's Russian, to say nothing of other works from the same language. Thanks to translators and publishers for their unrequited enterprise! But, in reality, Russian translations are much read—if not by the million, yet by the thousands who demand things not only new but good. We know of a quasi-public library where recently an applicant found that but one volume of Tolstoi's works was at his service, out of twenty volumes belonging to the library.

The first book on our list contains seven stories: "A Russian Proprietor," "Lucerne," "Recollections of a Scorer," "Albert," "Two Hussars," "Three Deaths," and "A Prisoner in the Caucasus." The first six were written between 1852 and 1859; the seventh is one of the 'Tales for Children,' written between 1869 and 1872. The latter, perhaps because the latest, is by far the pleasantest story. The "Recollections of a Scorer [billiard marker]" and the "Two Hussars" are not pleasant reading. A skilful hand has sketched scenes in the life of the gambler and of the trooper—has filled in, rather, with realistic fidelity, the dark lines of their heartlessness and dissipation, which show the blacker for the few gleams of innocence and manliness that appear. These two tales seem to be told for the sake of the telling; the others, more or less, for their implied moral—implied, but in Tolstoi's writings never expressed. "A Russian Proprietor" (which in the original is called "The Landlord's Morning: a fragment from an unfinished novel, 'A Russian Landlord' [lord of the manor]") describes the Sunday morning experiences of Prince Nekhliudoff while visiting some of his peasants. (This name, it may be noticed, appears also in Tolstoi's 'Childhood, Boyhood, Youth.') The Prince had at the age of nineteen left his university course unfinished, with the purpose of carrying out immediately his new-formed plans for the improvement of his estate, and especially of the condition of his peasants. In this effort more than a year had passed when, on "a clear July Sunday, having finished his coffee and run through a chapter of 'Maison Rustique,' [he] put his notebook in [his] pocket, . . . and started out of doors." Guided by his notebook, he makes his round of visits, but meets discouragement on every side. Anxious to help his people, at whatever cost to himself, he finds them unready, unwilling. One couple will not leave their tumble-down hovel for a new stone cottage that he offers them. On his way home he says to himself: "My aunt was right when she wrote that it is easier to find happiness than to give it to others. Have my peasants become any richer? Have they learned anything? Or have they shown any moral improvement? Not the least. They are no better off, but it grows harder and harder every day for me."

'Lucerne,' from the Recollections of Prince Nekhliudoff,' has for its text this paragraph, printed in italics near the end of the story:

"On the 19th of July, 1857, before the

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Schweitzerhof Hotel, in which there were lodging very opulent people, a wandering beggar minstrel sang for half an hour his songs, and played his guitar. About a hundred people listened to him. The minstrel thrice asked you all to give him something. No one person gave him a thing, and many made sport of him."

After which the writer says: "This is not an invention, but an actual fact." Nekhliudoff describes the really charming music of the Tyrolese; and tells how, after the crowd had sent him off with jeers, he himself followed and brought him back to the hotel, and ordered "champagne, and your very best." Both were treated with scorn, not only by an English lord and his lady, who were in the dining-room, but even by the servants. "I treated the little man exactly like an equal before all that audience of servants; and then, with all the respect I was able to express in my behavior, I took off my hat and pressed his hand with its dry and hardened fingers."

"Albert" is another story of a musician, a talented violinist, who is very weak morally (though not immoral) and very shabby. We are told how a kind-hearted bachelor took him to his own rooms and, with the aid of his servant, tried to make him better. The "Three Deaths" are those of a selfish, querulous "lady"; of a peasant coachman, who just before his death gives another coachman his boots; and of the ash-tree that the latter cuts down to make a cross for the other's grave. Before leaving this volume we ought to mark, for correction, a puzzling error of the proof reader. On page 4 is this: "Ambition is a virtue at your age, and with your means it becomes a fault and an absurdity when a man is no longer in the condition to satisfy this passion." After the word "means" a semi-colon and the word *but* have dropped out.

The next three books on our list are all from the last volume of Tolstoi's works, and belong respectively to the dates 1882–85, 1881, and 1885–86. The title 'What to Do' is from the French translation, the original titles being given in the "Contents" of the volume, namely: "Article on the census in Moscow," "Thoughts evoked by the census of Moscow," "On the significance of science and art," "On labor and luxury," and "To women." It would be superfluous to attempt a description, since the translator has herself given an excellent analysis of the volume in the *Atlantic Monthly* for July, 1887, under the title "Count Tolstoi and the Public Censor." We quote the last sentence of "To women": "Yes, ye women and mothers, in your hands, more than in those of all others, lies the salvation of the world!"

The tale 'What People Live By,' says a recent Russian writer upon Tolstoi, teaches forcibly the lesson of brotherly love "to the old and the young, to the cultured man and the plebeian, to the happy and the unhappy." It and the first of the next volume are told of shoemakers; and it is well known that our author is an active member of that guild.

'In Pursuit of Happiness'—there is in the original no title corresponding to this—contains four tales: "Where there is love there is God," "How much land a man needs," "The two pilgrims," and "Illyás." They belong to the class of which the critic above quoted says: "Concerning all these writings for the common people it may be said, that Count Tolstoi has succeeded better than all Russian writers in solving the difficult problem of a popular literature." In proof, he gives the results of an investigation made in the women's section of the Petersburg prison (formerly the Lithuanian Castle). "All Tolstoi's tales are listened to by the inmates, lettered and unlettered, with great interest, and some with real enthusiasm." Notwithstanding the scantiness of their daily wages (from 7 to 12 copecks, of which they have control of but one-half), they urgently insist upon buying these tracts with their own money. They carry them away into exile or to their village homes, in order there still to treasure them or to give them to others. We may remark here that the author takes no copyright for these tracts; any one may print them, and they may be bought for 5 copecks (about 2 cents), or less, apiece. 'What People Live By' and two in Mrs. Delano's other volume are accompanied by good copies of illustrations made for Russian readers, and these add much to the interest of the tales. But we are sorry for the omission of the New Testament texts that introduce two of the tales. It is said that Tolstoi's literary friends urge him to cease writing tracts for the people and essays in sociology and religion, and to give himself again to the production of works of art like 'Anna Karénina.' Mr. Kennan reports him as speaking "slightingly, almost contemptuously, of his works of fiction." In this he is as clearly wrong as he may be right in taking to tract-writing. Only the future can show.

The author of 'The Vagrant and Other Tales,' we learn from the "Biographical Note," is a young writer, his first sketches having appeared in 1879. The tales in this volume, with two exceptions, are told of Siberian life, or of vagrants (escaped or escaping prisoners). Want of space forbids a detailed account. Suffice it to say that the volume is exceedingly interesting both in matter and in manner. The translator deserves the thanks of every reader for marking the accents of all Russian proper names. And we must put on record to her credit the fact that she did *not* write the note on page 78, which mistakenly speaks of "the Yakúts or inhabitants of Yakútsk"; the Yakúts being one of several races inhabiting the district whose capital is Yakútsk. The editor or proof-reader, in his anxiety to distinguish the author's notes, appended to all others the abbreviation "Tr."

The work of the translators of the volumes under notice is, with some qualification, most praiseworthy. Mr. Dole sometimes misses the meaning, and sometimes obscures it, as though not quite sure whether the point be this or that. When he gets the meaning—which is usually—it is well expressed, with words well chosen. In the matter of the exact and full apprehension of the sense, both Americans stand at a disadvantage in comparison with Mrs. Delano, who, as the publishers' advertisement informs us, is "a cultivated Russian lady living in Boston"; while she, again, has had so much experience with our language that not an idiomatic fault appears, and her work is very smooth. It would of course be a truism to remark that, in translating, not only the sense but also the style should be reproduced as far as possible. In the case of Russian the difficulties are probably as great as in any other language that can be named. But, with all due respect for the opinion of others, we think this object may be more nearly attained by a somewhat closer literalness, a less frequent resort to circumlocution and to the combination of two or three sentences into one. As a simple example, chosen at random, take the title of one of the tales: "Where there is love there is God." A literal rendering would, we think, give both more grace and greater strength: "Where love [is], there [is] also God."

MARTINEAU'S STUDY OF RELIGION.

A Study of Religion. By James Martineau, D.D., LL.D. 2 vols., 8vo. Oxford: The Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 1888.

THE distinguished "Principal of Manchester New College, London," was educated when Paley and the Bridgewater school were in the ascendant, and their influence is traceable in all that he has ever said upon the affiliated problems of philosophy and theology. He has an unmistakable flavor of conservative sympathies, although not wanting in appreciation for the changes made during his lifetime. A Nonconformist and Unitarian by training and education, if not by birth, we should have expected that freedom from the trammels of traditional views which would insure less recalcitration against the revolutionary effects of progress. Two generations ago he would have been viewed with suspicion, because his resistance to the assumptions of orthodoxy implied logical consequences of the most reprehensible kind. But intellectual development is not always in the direction anticipated by alarmists. Fear and prophecy are not infallible guides. For Dr. Martineau has not kept pace with the tendencies to agnosticism charged to the spirit of rationalism. He appears now to many as a conservative of the conservatives. He is an irreconcilable in regard to evolution, and his previous work on ethics marks close affinities with the theonomic views of Martensen. He is not, however, behind the most advanced discoveries of science; nor is he wanting in the peculiar endowments of the philosopher, that comprehensive range of abilities which extend, like the mind of Leibnitz, with almost equal freedom and ease over all the possibilities of knowledge. Perhaps no Englishman except Herbert Spencer can compare with him equally in this respect. Others may be greater in single fields, but they will be less able to command with his logical and literary power the resources of physics, mathematics, natural history, ancient and modern philosophy, psychology, and theology for a comprehensive survey of all phenomena; or to use so forcibly against opponents the weapons of scepticism.

Nevertheless, after every tribute of praise has been ungrudgingly bestowed, there remains a firm suspicion that any conversion which might accrue to his masterly argument and exposition will only be temporary, and that the next reading of a scientific book will inevitably shunt us off into the fatal vortex of unbelief. The reason for this is a fact which our author, and writers of that school generally, have failed to remark with sufficient clearness. It is the universal demand of science that we put general theories and statements to the test of actual experience. Thus, if we assert the "goodness" of God and also his creation and government of the world, science merely requires that we see whether its administration conforms to our idea of goodness. If God is said to answer prayer, science would test this belief by the same method which it employs to estimate the claims for "thought transference." We shall not decide which is right; we are only indicating a tendency.

The present volumes have been awaited with considerable interest by students and scholars. They are the sequel to the 'Types of Ethical Theory,' which appeared about three years ago. It is an important and significant fact that the author conditions religion upon ethical postulates—a position the very reverse of theonomic systems current in the past, and one which seems to contradict his theory of duty laid down in his 'Types.' There he had traced the

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source of obligation in the last analysis to the authority of the Divine will. It was for this that Prof. Sidgwick took him so severely to task, and made his objections so cogent that most writers have acquiesced in their effectiveness. But here ethics are made the condition of theism, and we are left to conjecture in what sense they are so. We suspect, however, that the author is not aware of the full extent of his concession. It is one that certainly accords with the present necessity of reconstructing ethics upon a more assured basis than the changing fortunes of theological speculation. But to reverse the commonly accepted order of dependence will raise the question whether, after all, theistic beliefs have the importance we have attached to them. They may still seem to Dr. Martineau to have it; but he may be unconscious of retaining a reverence for beliefs which came to him from the theological view, and remain by association after he has completely reversed the relation of their connection and dependence. Of course, his defence will be the distinction between the *ratio essendi* of ethical and the *ratio cognoscendi* of theistic conceptions. But after we have conceded a prior importance to the gnosiological, we must apprehend a diminished interest in the ontological problem.

The extent to which the discussion represents the title will depend upon the view we take of "religion." Those whose conceptions of it are determined more by its cult than its creed, more by its forms of worship than its speculative doctrines, will find little to their taste here. Educated Unitarians, to whom the subject is mostly a philosophy, can accept it as a "Study of Religion"; but readers generally must resort to it for metaphysics and not for piety. The definition of "religion" is clear and admissible, and most conservative minds will find the author's emotional sympathies all enlisted in favor of the highest objects of reverence and hope. His philosophy is tempered by the emotional experience of a regenerated humanity, seeking a higher than itself; and, as expounded, comprehends a wider range of mental culture than the colder intellectual tastes of Unitarians usually allot to it. There is no display of intellectual pride at the achievements of liberalism, and none of the spiritual self-gratulation which led even Theodore Parker to say of his own sect, that "they were the most self-complacent people that ever took ship for the kingdom." But still, the spirit of rationalism which more intelligent students will be able to remark in every fibre of its structure, reveals no attachments to that view of religion which makes a fetish of a book, or shows an enthusiasm for surplices and rituals. It is on this account that many will see in it a suppressed tendency towards that position which can only be regarded as the last refuge of retreating thought.

There are four topics discussed, namely, "The Limits of Human Intelligence," "Theism," "Review of Opposing Systems," and "The Life to Come." Throughout the work, philosophic readers will be pleased to find what they missed in the 'Types of Ethical Theory,' namely, discussions of Kantian psychology and ethics, the former in the first, and the latter in the third topic. Most of us have been curious to know what the author would say about Kant, although tolerably able to guess from incidental sources the general direction which his exposition and criticism would take. But we cannot say that he has been happy in his efforts. It is too evident that he has not emancipated himself from the method of Locke and the principles of the "common-sense" school. Indeed, he seems not to have appreciated profoundly the problems raised by the philosophy of Locke, Berkeley, and Hume, and hence misses entirely the true position from which to estimate the great Königsberger. He is everywhere too sensitive about the relativity of knowledge, fearing that the least concession to that doctrine must land him in agnosticism, for which he has an antipathy much like that of Cato against Carthage. Of the discussions in particular we need only notice those on "teleology" and "the life to come."

Prof. Huxley at first thought evolution fatal to teleology, but later confessed his error. The chief difficulty, however, which it raises, Dr. Martineau does not seem to realize. It is not because evolution is a disguised form of chance, as the author imagines, that it seems so fatal to teleology, which implies ethical as well as intellectual attributes, but because its administration in accordance with the right of the strong is inconsistent with our highest ideas of intelligence and goodness. Thus it shows that the strong survive and the weak perish in "the struggle for existence." It is a reduction of the phenomena of nature to a formula in mechanics, where the resultant invariably accords with the superiority of physical force and prohibits all other interference. Now, "the survival of the fittest" so far explains the existence and improvement of organic structures that its most apparent implication indicates a course of things which seems to our minds a limitation of all ability to make it otherwise. The supernatural is subordinated and restricted, if it exist at all. Thus the Divine Being must either be limited in his power, or be identical with physical force. In the former case he is finite, in the latter he is not moral.

The discussion of anthropomorphism is judicious and able, but mostly a refutation of sceptical accusations. The complete confusion to which the author reduces Prof. Tyndall, and such as he, will be appreciated by all lovers of logic, whatever their sympathies. But, although one's argument for intelligence in the "world ground" may be conclusive, the crucial question is: "What relation does it sustain to man?" Does it accord with our ideals and aims, and if not, what qualifications must be added in order to call it intelligence at all? If it is not regardful of human interests, there is a diminished importance in defending its existence. We are in the position of Epicurus, who admitted the existence of the gods, but denied their participation in the affairs of the world. In such a case, theism might be admitted and still derive no value for regulating either conduct or belief.

The reply to the "alleged blemishes in nature" is exposed to a like criticism. While it serves as a most admirable check upon scientific dogmatism, it nevertheless attains its end only by admitting in reality the whole accusation of the sceptic, as the following passage will show:

> "The field-mouse, stealing through the grass in the safe darkness, catches the night-eye of the owl, and is devoured. In all such cases there is undoubtedly a sacrifice of single organisms without realizing their capabilities; and if it were the end of Nature (as it is ours) to preserve each of her offspring to full development, this would constitute failure. But so long as the life that drops into her bosom reappears in new births, nothing is really lost, and her purpose is untouched by mere change of instances. The teleology of nature must be sought, not in individuals, but in kinds."

Now, it is precisely the sacrifice of the individual that the sceptic has to complain of, and it is no refutation of him to point to the general good of the type. Besides, this view has dangerous and unwelcome consequences for another doctrine, as we shall see below.

The point of departure in discussing "the life to come" is enforced by an incident from the life of Schleiermacher, which is designed to show the incurable weakness of pantheism—namely, its affinities with the doctrine of Nirvana. From this, along with other considerations of philosophic import, Dr. Martineau would have us conclude to a personal existence beyond the grave as the only condition which will satisfy the demands of human nature. But if we can rescue the divine benevolence only by showing its exertion in behalf of the race, and not of the individual, can we invoke it when desiring to defend personal immortality against the claims of pantheism? The difficulty here is the old one, and it still remains unsolved. It is the conflict between philosophic tendencies in one direction and human interests in another. Their reconciliation remains for the future.

Robert Southey. The Story of his Life Written in his Letters. Edited by John Dennis. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.

THIS compilation from Southey's correspondence, with an introduction and some biographical notes to connect the letters, is as successful as was to be looked for. The selection is on the whole judicious, and shows the course of Southey's career in its successive periods, with his temperament and circumstances during each; the character of that long labor of his life; his confidence, as yet unjustified, in the immortality of his poems; and his manly constancy and Christian faith under the hard requirements of a bread-winning life and the repeated strokes of misfortune in the loss of children and wife. It was an original, but infelicitous, thought of Southey's to extend the ballad into an epic form, but in spite of having pleased many men worth pleasing, from Sir Walter Scott to Dean Stanley, and even such a poet as Shelley, the whole fleet of Madoc, Kehama, and Roderick have gone down like so many Spanish galleons of the old time, and the ballad has come back to us again with Sir Richard Grenville in its true immortality. It is not likely that the future inhabitants of Brazil will look back to the writer of their early history in the way that he fondly hoped—"No, Chauncey Townshend, it is not all; and I should deal insincerely with you if I did not add that ages hence it will be found among their works which are not destined to perish, and secure for me a remembrance in other countries as well as in my own; that it will be read in the heart of S. America, and communicate to the Brazilians, when they shall have become a powerful nation, much of their own history which would otherwise have perished, and be to them what the work of Herodotus is to Europe." The parallel has not yet been made, save by himself; but the Life of Nelson is still a good narrative, and outlasts everything else from his pen. When that shall have been condensed, and has passed into the British Plutarch, then will still be left the memory of a name which has been honored more than any other of his contemporaries for sterling virtues, as the old phrase went, and as an example of fortitude, labor, and common manhood. It was the perception of this moral strength that made Sir Henry Taylor affirm that it might be said of him "justly, and with no straining of the truth, that of all his contemporaries he was the greatest man"; and, without endorsing the form of the expression, we may acknowledge the truth that it conveys. Letters, however, are an incomplete expression of such a charac-

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ter, and yet they have the advantage of making the reader more intimate with Southey than does formal biography. The great fault of the book is the lack of an index, which might have been easily made.

Classic German Course in English. By William Cleaver Wilkinson. Chautauqua Press. 1887.

We have here another popular book consisting of biographical sketches of the principal classical authors of Germany, with illustrative specimens of their works in English translations. Such books have now come to be rather numerous, and Mr. Wilkinson naturally feels himself called upon to explain wherein his volume differs from preceding ones of the same general kind. He accordingly states that his book is, in the first place, smaller than the others. Secondly, it is "not merely or chiefly historical and critical," but is "historical and critical incidentally." Finally, it does not "present long translated extracts in bare unbroken bulk," but does "present considerable extracts, interrupted, connected, elucidated, and appreciated by means of quasi-editorial comment in explanation and appraisal." "In other words," continues our author, "taking translated German text, select and representative, for the basis, the backbone, of the book, we shall seek so to edit the text as to invest it with flesh, its own flesh, to inspire it with breath, its own breath, to give it a heart, its own heart; in short, to make it live, and with its own life, to our readers."

Not a bad programme, certainly. We may add that the book is written from the point of view of evangelical orthodoxy, and that it is, we suppose, intended for use in the Chautauqua classes. The passages translated strike us as in the main well chosen, although many of them have often done duty as illustrative specimens before. The translations are taken from various sources, the author only now and then giving a version of his own. As to the quality of the "criticism, elucidation, and appraisal" which Mr. Wilkinson gives us, we were quite prepared for his statement that the selection, translation, and condensation of the illustrative passages cost him more labor and thought than the writing of the original text. In dealing with Luther, Klopstock, Gerhardt, and other pious writers, our author is sympathetic, and a trustworthy "guide" for those who need such guidance; but in speaking of Lessing, Herder, Wieland, and Heine, he shows his limitations. The essay upon Goethe, for example, is one long misrepresentation. It consists of statements, not usually quite devoid of foundation, but so connected and construed and with necessary qualifications so skilfully omitted, as to give a total impression which is radically wrong. As to the author's literary judgments, we quote a sentence or two: "In 1826 Heine had published the first instalment of his masterpiece, the 'Pictures of Travel'; what has there been in German literature since?" "'Faust' is dull reading, very dull reading, to the average English speaker." "We shall not conceal our own confident opinion that the time will come when men will wonder that ever such a heteroclite production imposed itself on several generations of readers, or rather of critics, as a true triumph of genius and art."

The Bastille. By Capt. the Hon. D. Bingham. 2 vols. Scribner & Welford. 1888.

We do not think we can better describe the work of "Captain the Hon. D. Bingham" than by likening it to that of the organ-grinder. Every writer on history who is worth listening to combines natural and acquired qualifications. We do not, in all cases, expect or desire the wild violin-improvisation of Carlyle, or the showy though careless brilliancy of Macaulay, or the correct and conscientious but dull and mechanical proficiency of Freeman, or the degradation of the music to mere accompaniment to a political ditty, which is charged against Taine and Treitschke; but one does demand some scholarship and individuality of mind—not mere crank-turning. Yet this is all that is accomplished by the Hon. Mr. Bingham. Given a subject like the Bastille, and the only limit to the amount of matter, relevant and irrelevant, which one may write thereon, is the publisher's estimate of the cost of manufacture. But even in works of this class there is a difference of quality, to the degree that want of originality may largely be atoned for by grace of style. But Mr. Bingham's style is utterly without vigor or euphony, and is so careless that he ignores the difference between "who" and "whom." There is nothing to say about the topics treated. A popular history of the Bastille is necessarily an anecdotic history of France for four centuries, and this differs from other works of the kind only in being less attractive. Those who have no other means of informing themselves about the League, the Fronde, Mazarin, Richelieu, and the Iron Mask—not to mention two or three hundred less conspicuous characters and incidents—may find the book worth examination. As in all British histories, the print is excellent. The illustrations, on the other hand, are shabby.

The Theory and Practice of Archery. By the late Horace Ford, champion archer of England for the years 1850 to 1859 and 1867. New edition, thoroughly revised and rewritten, by W. Butt, M.A., for many years Hon. Secretary of the Royal Toxophilite Society. Longmans, Green & Co. 1887.

We can recommend this book as a thoroughly comprehensive work on practical archery. It will be especially valuable to those who take more than a superficial interest in the subject, and to whom the ordinary manuals are by no means satisfactory. Mr. Ford was the founder of modern scientific archery, and his best scores, whether at public matches or made in private practice, have never been surpassed. We feel sure that those who have some experience in archery, and who are fortunate enough to obtain a copy of this book, will feel renewed enthusiasm for the pastime, and will find a marked improvement in their scores after a careful study of it. The chapter on aiming is of special interest, as Mr. Ford's experience proved that an arrow drawn directly beneath the aiming eye was more certain in its flight than one drawn to the ear according to tradition, and his unusual success was greatly due to this fact. The last part of the book contains the records of public matches in England, and also gives some remarkable scores made in private practice. These are naturally most interesting and useful to those anxious to improve and to have some standard of excellence. Altogether, the work deserves to be owned by every one who practises archery. It will, we feel sure, meet a long-felt want.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Alden's Manifold Cyclopædia of Knowledge and Language. Vol. I. A to America. John B. Alden. 50 cents.
Alexander, Mrs. A Life Interest. Henry Holt & Co. $1.
American Almanac for 1888. Am. News Co.
American and English Yachts. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Annual Index to Periodicals, for 1887. Bangor, Me.: W. M. Griswold.
Ashton, J. A Century of Ballads. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $7.50.
Barnard, F. P. Strongbow's Conquest of Ireland. London: David Nutt; New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Becker, K. F. Friedrich der Grosse. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan & Co. 90 cents.
Besant, W. Herr Paulus: His Rise, his Greatness, and his Fall. Harper & Bros. 35 cents.
Bigelow, J. Complete Works of Benjamin Franklin. Vol. VI. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $5.
Bradley, H. Story of the Goths. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Burnett, Mrs. F. H. Sara Crewe. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Cary, Rosa N. Only the Governess. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 25 cents.
Cassell's Complete Pocket-Guide to Europe. New ed. Cassell & Co. $1.50.
Chadwick, Rev. G. A. Gospel according to St. Mark. A. C. Armstrong & Son. $1.50.
Clayton, G. Pleasant Waters: A Story of Southern Life and Character. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co.
Clodd, E. The Story of Creation: a Plain Account of Evolution. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Colton, G. Q. Shakspere and the Bible. Parallel Passages. Thos. R. Knox & Co.
Comenius, J. A. Orbis Pictus. Syracuse, N. Y.: C. W. Bardeen. $3.
Cook, W. W. Trusts: the Recent Combinations in Trade. L. K. Strouse & Co. 25 cents.
Cushing, W. Initials and Pseudonyms. 2d Series. T. Y. Crowell & Co. $3.
Darnell, H. F. Philip Hazelbrook; or, The Junior Curate. Buffalo: C. L. Sherrill & Co.
Dulac, G. Before the Dawn: a Story of Paris and the Jacquerie. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.50.
Emerson, J. M. Stimulants. Dick & Fitzgerald. 50 cents.
Forbes, G. Lectures on Electricity. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.50.
Goldsmith, O. The Traveller, and Deserted Village. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.
Goldsmith, O. The Vicar of Wakefield. G. P. Putnam's Sons. $1.
Hawthorne, J. David Poindexter's Disappearance, and Other Tales. D. Appleton & Co. 50 cents.
Hawthorne, J. Section 558, or the Fatal Letter. Cassell & Co. $1.
King, Harriet E. H. The Disciples. 9th ed. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.50.
Koopman, H. L. Orestes, and Other Poems. Buffalo: Moulton, Wenborne & Co. $1.
Lewis, Rev. A. H. Critical History of Sunday Legislation (321—1888). D. Appleton & Co.
Life of P. T. Barnum Written by Himself. Brought up to 1888. Bridgeport, Conn.: H. E. Bowser. 60 cents.
MacLeod, A. C. Love the Fulfilling of the Law. Extracts from the Writings and MSS. of the late Norman MacLeod, D.D. A. D. F. Randolph & Co. $1.75.
McCosh, Rev. J. The Religious Aspect of Evolution. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Mercier C. The Nervous System and the Mind. Macmillan & Co. $4.
Meyer, Prof. L. Modern Theories of Chemistry. Longmans, Green & Co. $5.50.
Moore, Miss N. Pilgrims and Puritans: The Story of the Planting of Plymouth and Boston. Boston: Ginn & Co. 85 cents.
Murray, W. H. H. The Doom of Mamelons. Philadelphia: Hubbard Bros.
Newell, C. M. The Voyage of the Fleetwing. Boston: De Wolfe, Fiske & Co. $1.50.
O'Rell, Max. John Bull, jr., or French as She is Traduced. Cassell & Co. $1.
Palmer, Mary T. The Doctor of Deane. Boston: D. Lothrop Co.
Pennell, J. and E. Our Sentimental Journey through France and Italy. Longmans, Green & Co. $1.75.
Proudhon, P. J. System of Economical Contradictions; or, the Philosophy of Misery. Vol. I. Boston: Benj. R. Tucker. $3.50.
Rambaud, Prof. A. Histoire de la Civilisation Contemporaine en France. Paris: Armand Colin & Cie.
Richter, Prof. V. von. Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry. 3d ed. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston, Son & Co.
Robinson, Rev. Chas. S. Laudes Domini. Abridged ed. The Century Co.
Ross, Rev. A. H. The Church-Kingdom; Lectures on Congregationalism. Boston: Congregational Sunday-School and Publishing Society. $2.50.
Russell, Irwin. Poems. The Century Co. $1.

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